The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 25, 1900.

The Week.

The agreement reached in the Senate fixing the 15th of February as the day to vote on the currency bill is the most encouraging event that has taken place in Congress since the bill was first reported to the House. This agreement is an assurance that the bill will pass; but that assurance has been given in other ways, and more especially in the manifest indifference of the Democrats to the whole subject. Their opposition has been growing fainter and fainter all the time. The Democratic newspapers throughout the country treat the bill for the most part with silence. Even the speech made by Senator Teller on Wednesday week was much less forceful and energetic than his former efforts. It betokens clearly that he, for one, has thrown up the sponge. If we contrast this vapid and spiritless behavior of the silver men with their fight against the repeal of the Sherman law in 1893, when it seemed as though we were on the eve of a revolution because the Democrats would not allow a vote to be taken, it needs no oracle to tell us that the end has come, that the question of the monetary standard is at last definitively settled, and will vex the hearts of the business men no more. The Democrats are trying to retire under cover of the national-bank question, and it is well enough to let them do so. The maxim which says, "Build a bridge of gold for your retreating enemy," here has a double meaning.

The fate of the Samoan Islands is too small a matter to interest a public having to consider the Philippine situation, and the treaty disposing of them was ratified by the Senate without consideration. But a report that the President regarded the treaty as giving him sovereign powers over the island of Tutuila aroused Senator Jones of Arkansas to somewhat belated opposition, and the treaty has been recalled from the President. The statement is made that the President contemplates no such action. Possibly we may be assured that he would regard it as criminal aggression. But, in view of the events of the last few years, Senator Jones's suspicions are not unjustifiable. Very little attempt has been made to rebut the evidence that the President did plan to establish his sovereignty over the Philippines while he was denying such an intention. The proposed treaty has the very great merit of extricating our Government from an entangling alliance with Great Britain and Germany; but if it is to have the effect of annexing more territory to the United States, and possibly of admitting a number of Samoans to citizenship, it should be carefully scrutinized. We all know that the principle is vital to the imperialist theory, that when the Flag has been raised on any part of a Pacific island, the sovereignty of our government at once extends over the whole of it. The inhabitants of Tutuila may be very insignificant human beings; but the disposition of their future may involve principles of transcendent importance.

According to Senator Morgan, it is extremely important that immediate action should be taken to construct the Nicaraguan Canal. Like some of the newspapers that insisted on hurrying the country into war with Spain, he thinks it will be time to deliberate after we act. It is true that our Government has a commission of eminent men engaged in selecting the best route for the canal. It might seem the proper course to await the report of this commission before committing ourselves to any particular scheme. By no means, says Senator Morgan. Should the Commission pronounce in favor of the Nicaraguan Canal, we shall have gained time by anticipating its action. Should it declare against the Nicaraguan route, it will demonstrate the insufficiency or error of the proposed immediate action "in time to prevent any possible harm to the country." If the strength of Senator Morgan's case is to be measured by the strength of his argument for it, Congress may well hesitate to yield to his demands. His reasoning would dispense altogether with the service of trained engineers in laying out the canal; if we found we were going wrong at any time, we could reflect that the country would survive it, and that it might be all the same a hundred years hence. Of course, Senator Morgan knows, as well as every one else, that if he can succeed in embarking our Government in the Nicaraguan enterprise, any report against its feasibility would be entirely disregarded. In fact, Senator Morgan himself would talk loudest and longest against paying any attention whatever to such a report.

Congressman McCall of Massachusetts has introduced a bill to put the personal baggage of travellers arriving in the United States under the same regulations that existed in the McKinley tariff of 1890. The present law restricts the total amount of such articles purchased abroad and brought in by residents of the United States to the value of one hundred dollars. This restriction does not apply to foreign tourists or to immigrants. It will be remembered that, when the new law went into effect, an attempt was made to execute it by private enterprise—that is, by placing unofficial persons on the steamer docks to inspect the baggage of arriving passengers—and that passengers were subjected to such insult and outrage that the Treasury Department issued an order forbidding anybody to take part in the inspection except the regularly appointed customs officers. Since that time there has been no complaint of the ill-treatment of the public on the docks. The business of baggage inspection goes on as before. It is more rigid than in any European country, but it causes no unnecessary delay or friction. The danger of political consequences disastrous to the Republican party, at one time imminent in consequence of the indignities put upon passengers, was averted. A movement to restore the law which was in force before the passage of the Dingley bill was started in New York, Boston, and Chicago simultaneously, and Mr. McCall's bill is the outcome of it. It ought to be passed without opposition. The amount of goods which one person can bring in being restricted to articles necessary to his journeying and his present comfort and convenience, it is not likely that any more would be brought in than comes in now. As regards the revenue, it has been shown that the baggage tax yields only $140,000 per year, although the wise Dingley estimated it at $10,000,000. The objection may be raised to the McCall bill that it reopens the whole tariff controversy, but, in fact, that controversy has already been reopened by the Administration's policy of free trade with Porto Rico.

The damage heretofore done by Appraiser Wakeman to the commerce of New York cannot be repaired, but his powers in this department of human activity are somewhat curtailed by the decision of the Board of General Appraisers adverse to his ruling on paragraph 313 of the present tariff. This paragraph is too technical to be explained to the general reader. It relates to the method of introducing figures into certain cotton goods in the process of weaving. Wakeman, in his search for ways and means to harass importers, ordered his subordinates to change the classification of the goods in question, so as to make them subject to an increased duty of two cents per square yard. This order inflicted a heavy pecuniary loss upon the houses which were importing such goods, since it increased their expenses by the amount of the new duty; and in cases where they had made contracts or booked orders ahead of arrival, they

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

could not charge the additional cost to the buyers. They might possibly, after some years and at the end of a lawsuit, get their money back from the Government, but they would lose the interest on their capital meanwhile, and would have heavy bills to pay for legal services. If Wakeman had any sense of shame, he would now resign, and if the Government had a proper sense of its duty to citizens engaged in an honorable and lawful vocation, it would eject him from office at once.

The true animus of the attacks on Commissioner Evans was revealed the other day in the debate on the passage of the pension bill. In 1898, the first year of Mr. Evans's administration, he paid out to pension attorneys, more than half of them in Washington, the sum of $730,000. Last year he paid them but $477,000. These attorneys, as was observed by Mr. Mahon of Pennsylvania, created the agitation among the old soldiers in order to make business for themselves, and a reduction of their fees by one-third is sufficient to produce a tremendous crop of complaints against any Commissioner. Fortunately Congress has not yielded, on this occasion, and Mr. Evans's hands have been strengthened, rather than weakened, by the debate. As might have been expected, the decrease in the pension rolls, which had been hopefully reckoned upon by some statesmen, is to be postponed on account of the claims of the veterans of the Spanish war. As the war with the Filipinos is a much more serious matter than that with Spain, an increase in the pension payments may reasonably be anticipated.

The strongest point made in the majority report of the committee of the House of Representatives on the Roberts case is that the State of Utah, in his election, violated an "understanding" by which it secured admission to the Union. The legal and constitutional effect of such an understanding, however, is somewhat obscure. It may have been violated "explicitly and offensively," but was there any penalty for such violation provided in the understanding? If not, it does not appear where the power to inflict the penalty resides. During the reconstruction period, Congress made repeated attempts to regulate the behavior of the Southern States by "conditions subsequent." These States were admitted with certain constitutions, not merely on the "understanding" that these constitutions were not to be altered, but, in the case of Mississippi at least, with that express provision. But it was found impracticable to maintain this position, and the fifteenth amendment was finally resorted to in order to accomplish the purpose of Congress. It would no doubt be correct to say that, when the reconstructed States were admitted, it was in pursuance of an "understanding" that they should not deprive the negroes of political rights. If the violation of such understandings is a ground for excluding Representatives from the House, the numbers of that body might be greatly depleted, and some States would not be represented there at all.

Statisticians will read with sinking hearts the debate in the House of Representatives on the passage of the supplementary census bill last week. The returns of the census of 1890 were deprived of much of what value they ever would have had by being delayed for years in publication. The complaints on this account were so loud and so well founded as to lead to an attempt to save time in completing the next census by business-like arrangements for printing. Nothing more revolutionary was proposed than an amendment to the bill authorizing the Director, if the reports could probably not be published by the Government Printing-Office within the period prescribed by law, to contract for their printing and binding by private parties. In support of this amendment, it was stated that the Public Printer would require 300 full working days, with the present force, under the most favorable conditions, to do the work projected by the Director of the Census. To propitiate the politicians, the chairman of the census committee offered to accept an amendment that the printing should be done by union labor. Nevertheless the whole scheme was rejected by an overwhelming majority. This is attributed to the influence of the typographical unions, which are opposed to having any Government printing done outside of the Government Office, administered as it is according to their exactions. Congress has passed a bill requiring the publication of the census returns to be completed by June 30, 1902. It is a safe prediction that an extension of time will hereafter be granted, for it is hardly possible that the Government Office can discharge the duty now laid upon it.

Coming immediately after the imprisonment for life of two Texas lynchers, the denunciation of mob violence by Gov. Longino, the new executive of Mississippi, gives added reason for believing in a change in Southern feeling upon this vitally important matter. He not only called attention in his inaugural last week to the economic dangers of mob law in driving capital and investors out of the State, but laid stress upon the lynching of suspects for many other crimes than rape, to punish which it was first employed. But the Governor had a remedy to propose, as well as scathing words for the increase of lawlessness in the State. He called upon the Legislature for a law giving a large sum of damages to the family of any one lynched hereafter, to be paid by the county in which the lynching occurs. Another law recommended provides that the office of a sheriff or constable who allows a prisoner to be taken from him shall become vacant. These are all admirable suggestions. Should they become law, Governor Longino will be entitled to the thanks of the whole country.

The battle of the breakfast-table in this city on Saturday ended most ingloriously for both combatants. Neither Roosevelt nor Platt showed a scratch when he emerged from the room in which the well-advertised contest was to take place. More remarkable still, the historian of war, the man who celebrates the martial achievements of the English Cromwell in a past century, and of an American Cromwell in Cuba during this century, had "nothing whatever to say." Most remarkable of all, the exponent of "a strenuous life," though apparently unscathed, admitted that he had consented to an armistice, and allowed his antagonist time to strengthen his lines of battle. Was it only for this lame and impotent conclusion that a Governor came to the metropolis from Albany and a United States Senator from Washington? Wherein does either party cut a better figure than a member of the Peace Society? Everybody else sees, even if the Governor does not, that the cause for which he stands is weakened by such dilly-dallying. The principles which Platt and Roosevelt represent in this matter are irreconcilable. Platt wants to avoid the contest over Payn's successor altogether, if possible. If Payn must go, the boss desires that his successor shall come as near as decency will permit to the Payn level. "The organization" showed its hand clearly on Saturday when it brought forward as its first choice the deputy superintendent. Of course Roosevelt saw in a moment that he might almost as well let Payn stay. What he does not seem to see is, that the machine will not name anybody as a compromise candidate of whose loyalty to itself, rather than to the interests of the State, it does not feel thoroughly assured. The organization regards the Insurance Superintendency as a place to be "worked" for the Republican politicians. The Governor is bound to treat it as a trust, to be administered in behalf of the people.

Payn's begging letter to Mr. Whitney would constitute an absolute disqualification for the office of Superintendent of Insurance, if he were not already disqualified for it by a thousand other considerations. For a man in his position to be exposed as a Wall Street speculator, on "margin," would be simply fatal in any system of government

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

where ordinary morality and business principles held sway. Furthermore, Payn is caught in this letter using the servants of the State to run his private errands. "The bearer, Mr. Henry D. Appleton, is my chief deputy." Just the man to be rushing around to save his superior from personal bankruptcy. And if any little arrangement about "inspecting" at times convenient to the inspected were to be made, who so fit and handy as the chief deputy? Payn's letter, says the President of the State Trust Company, who gave it out for publication, "tells its own story." It does, and the story is one of reprehensible conduct in office and of unfitness to hold it one hour after a successor can be confirmed. Gov. Roosevelt is under renewed obligation to nominate an honest man for the Superintendency, and to keep on sending in names, if the first is rejected, until the Senate is shown to be as worthy of suspicion and contempt as Payn himself.

Mr. Whitney's display of the finest qualities of our poor human nature is the one redeeming feature of a sad affair. Payn had no claim upon him. There it stands in the letter: "I have no right to ask so great a favor of you." So there could be no possible question of duress or blackmail. Many men in Mr. Whitney's position would have turned away the suppliant. But that pathetic story of a sick wife and impending ruin was too much for his tender heart, and he instantly put his hand in his pocket—that is to say, the Metropolitan Company puts its hand in *its* pocket—and drew a check to Payn's order for $100,000, marked "Construction account." Was this with an eye to the construction that might be placed upon the transaction? We cannot say, but we are sure the community has been deeply touched by this revelation of Mr. Whitney's melting charity. We only hope that his impulsive philanthropy will not be taken advantage of by other designing men.

The death of Theodore Bacon of Rochester will sadden the hearts, not only of his personal friends, but also of many who knew him only by reputation. Nothing was so characteristic of him as his unswerving devotion to principle. No considerations of personal advancement, none even of political expediency, could make him deviate from the path prescribed by conscience. And his was an enlightened conscience. He was of the generation which felt the stimulating influences of the anti-slavery struggle and of the civil war; but he was no mere enthusiast. To the education received in college he added the culture of foreign travel, acquaintance with statesmen of other countries as well as his own, and a profound appreciation of those fundamental principles which have made the common law so great a bulwark of the liberties of the people. With these qualifications, with brilliant gifts, both as a speaker and a writer, and with an unsullied character, no position might have seemed too high for him. Yet he received no office from the people; not because it was not tendered, but because he was by nature and principle utterly incapable of practising, or even tolerating, the arts of the demagogue. When he became, as he sometimes did, a candidate for elective office, he defined his attitude so clearly and stated his principles so sharply as to make success—in the ordinary sense—hopeless. It might have been said of his public declarations on these occasions, as of John Stuart Mill's when he stood for Westminster, "The Almighty could not be elected on such a platform." So it will perhaps be said that his life was a failure; that he threw away his opportunities for doing good, and that those who voted for him threw away their votes. In that sense the life of every one who fights a losing battle, who struggles for an unsuccessful cause, is a failure. But to those who draw inspiration from such defeats and firmer courage from such struggles, such lives are not failures. They form the very substance of the faith and hope that stay us up, and without the help of such examples no reform could command true devotion.

The incorporation of Barnard College into the educational system of Columbia University, with the consequent alteration in the relations of its officers and students to the larger institution, is an event of marked importance in the educational world. By this change the President of Columbia becomes, ex-officio, the President of Barnard, his duties being the same in both instances, while the dean of Barnard is given a seat and a vote in the University Council. Hereafter the Barnard instructors will be on exactly the same footing as those teaching in Columbia, though selected by their own institution. Most interesting of all is the announcement that, in the future, the women graduate students of Columbia University will be subject to the same terms as the men candidates for the higher degrees. Not even Radcliffe has progressed as far as this in its relation to Harvard University, for it still has its separate President, and is without representation on any governing board of the University except the committee which deals with graduate students. It is true that President Eliot's signature is to be found on Radcliffe degrees, but only as an assurance that the documents which bear it represent fully as much as those issued to men in the other institution, a few yards away. It is to be hoped that Columbia's step forward will not be without its effect in Cambridge. Meanwhile, it is gratifying to note that the throwing open of Columbia to women graduate students is taken almost as a matter of course, and that it will be the cause of very much less unfavorable comment than the original proposition ten years ago to add an annex to the University.

The feeling of sympathy with the Boers is reaching considerable dimensions in this country, and we are glad to see that in some quarters it is accompanied with a corresponding sense of shame for our own slaughter of a people struggling for liberty on the other side of the globe. In the pro-Boer meeting at Washington City on Sunday evening, two of the speakers made pointed reference to our Government's course in the Philippines. Senator Allen of Nebraska said: "A man cannot believe in the cause of the Boers, and at the same time uphold our Government's course in the Philippines." Congressman Clark of Missouri said: "Wherever people are struggling for liberty, they should have the friendship of all Americans." Senator Allen and Champ Clark may be a pair of demagogues—we have had occasion to take note of them as such aforetime, and may have to do so hereafter; yet they shine by comparison with other speakers at this meeting, who could only pour out vials of wrath on Great Britain.

Count von Bülow's statement in the Reichstag on Friday puts an end to the talk of strained relations between Germany and Great Britain. The German Government, he showed, had very properly stood up for the rights of neutral trade, and the English Government now admits that its naval officers were, in certain cases, guilty of excess of zeal in detaining German steamers. These have been released with apologies and offers of full indemnity. Nothing could be more satisfactory, or speak better for the firmness of the Berlin Foreign Office and the tact and good sense of Lord Salisbury in adjusting the controversy. But there is in the incident promise of still more important results than the mere removal of one cause of international friction. Count von Bülow said, with perfect justice, that the happy settlement would go far toward introducing order into what is now a somewhat chaotic department of international law. The whole matter of the rights of neutral trade, the definition of contraband of war, and the exercise of the right of search will be greatly cleared up by this amicable agreement of these two powerful nations on certain principles and rules. As the German Foreign Minister remarked, an international Congress might well be called to pass upon the entire subject; but, even as it is, a great step in advance has been taken. It is, in fact, by the accumulation of such peaceful agreements between great Powers that international law is made.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

SHIPPING SUBSIDIES.

The magnitude of the fraud sought to be perpetrated on the taxpayers of the United States by the shipping-subsidy bill can be best understood by making a comparison of the sums actually appropriated by Great Britain, for example, and those proposed by the Hanna-Payne bill. By reference to recent reports of the British Postmaster-General and the admiralty records, it will be found that the ships to which subvention was paid by the British admiralty as reserve merchant cruisers during the past year were as follows:

Himalaya, P. & O. Co.	£3,375
Australia, P. & O. Co.	3,375
Victoria, P. & O. Co.	2,438
Arcandia, P. & O. Co.	2,438
Campania, Cunard Co.	7,500
Lucania, Cunard Co.	7,500
Teutonic, White Star Co.	7,265
Majestic, White Star Co.	7,396

To these may be added the three steamers of the Canadian Pacific Railroad Company:

Empress of India, Empress of China, Empress of Japan, for the three	£7,313
Aggregate for the eleven steamers	£48,600

For these payments the admiralty have the first call on the ships, at much lower rates than they would have to pay if the boats were chartered in times of emergency, and they have also the first call on other ships belonging to these companies for which no subvention is paid. In consideration of this payment, the ships were constructed under admiralty survey, and fitted with gun-decks and the necessary adjuncts to enable them to be readily utilized as armed cruisers in case of need; the subvention being paid, not only for the privilege of a call upon the lines for the boats so subsidized, but as compensation for the additional expense in construction, and for the additional weight and bulk which they are obliged to carry in the shape of gun-decks and other fittings. In addition to the subvention, according to the forty-fourth report of the Postmaster-General of Great Britain, the total amount paid for the carriage of mails from the United Kingdom to New York during the year ending March 31, 1898, was £107,694, or say about $500,000, which, added to the amount paid for subvention, would aggregate a sum total of about $750,000.

In the Hanna-Payne bill, provision is made for the payment of subsidy to American-owned steamers under the British and Belgian flags, which is estimated to amount in the aggregate to more than $658,000 annually. It is also an open secret that various foreign residents doing business in New York within the prescribed time have filed notices which will enable them to comply with the stipulations of the bill and secure subsidy payments on a still greater amount of tonnage now in course of construction to be put into the American trade later. Thus the estimated $9,000,000 for subsidy appropriation is likely to be fully used, the lion's share going to the International Navigation Company and other owners of vessels which are foreign built, though possibly under the American flag, while the Pacific Mail, Ward Line, and other coastwise lines, strictly American, will divide among them what is left by the more greedy claimants for the public money. If this Hanna-Payne bill, as has been so frequently announced, is for the purpose of reviving shipbuilding interests in this country and the building up of an American merchant marine, why not confine the payment of the subsidy to strictly American-built ships?

Now let us inquire what would have been the subsidy payments under the Hanna-Payne bill for the fiscal year 1897, if it had been in force at that time. Following the actual course of every ship during that year, the amount paid from the Treasury would have been the following:

International Navigation Co. (under American flag)	$1,303,331 57
International Navigation Co. (under British and Belgian flags)	658,701 44
Ocean Steamship Co.	117,390 37
Pacific Coast Steamship Co. and Oregon Improvement Co.	61,209 42
Atlantic and Caribbean Steamship Co.	113,132 28
Pacific Mail Steamship Co.	213,387 80
United States and Cuba Mail Co.	300,601 97
C. H. Mallory & Co.	7,256 87
H. B. Plant Steamship Co.	12,665 32
W. P. Clyde & Co.	25,069 83
Southern Pacific Co.	21,898 57
Charles W. Hogan	8,438 10
T. Hogan & Son	11,225 74
Alfred C. Bedford	31,300 13
L. and N. Railroad Co.	381 09
Saginaw Steamship Co.	1,497 96
Pacific Steel Barge Co.	9,592 85
Progreso Steamship Co.	480 13
International Steamboat Co.	409 53
Boston Towboat Co.	1,254 43
Total	$2,899,225 10

In addition to this the following extra subsidies would have been earned by reason of ships of greater speed and larger tonnage:

International Navigation Co. under American flag	$1,220,512 20	
Under British and Belgian flags	486,768 64	$1,707,280 84
Oceanic Steamship Co.		117,390 37
Pacific Coast Steamship Co. and Oregon Improvement Co.		20,066 76
Atlantic and Caribbean Steamship Co.		94,643 06
Pacific Mail Steamship Co.		95,281 38
C. H. Mallory & Co.		2,262 33
Total		$2,036,924 74

This makes a total of nearly $5,000,000, against about $750,000 paid by Great Britain for like purposes. An interview appeared in the morning papers, a few days ago, in which the President of the International Navigation Company was made to say that the mail contracts which now give the International Navigation Company some $1,000,000 per annum do not compensate for the extra expense involved in sailing under the American flag. Such statements may deceive the average member of Congress, but cannot deceive merchants who are familiar with the subject. We are informed that the subsidy which would be earned by the International Navigation Company under the proposed bill would in itself amount yearly to more than the gross earnings that can be made by either of the largest steamship companies now employed in the trade between England and America from the income of their regular business.

It is an open secret at Washington that a combination has been formed between the Hanna-Payne subsidy and the Nicaragua Canal. Senator Hanna had agreed to await the report of the Isthmian Canal Commission, and the President had accordingly recommended delay on the canal bill for that purpose, but there has been a sudden change in both quarters. Mr. Hanna has put his name to the report for immediate action on the canal bill, and he thinks that he has secured a sufficient number of votes for the shipping-subsidy bill. It may be so, but it is not yet certain. The debate in the Senate is yet to take place, and it is scarcely credible that the bill should fail to be exposed in its true character as a brazen scheme for filling private pockets at the expense of the people.

FREE TRADE WITH THE COLONIES.

The imagination of man could not have conceived a more bizarre termination of the late war, and the acquisition of territory which followed it, than the present controversy in the Republican party over the question of free trade with Porto Rico. It should be remarked in the first place that there never was any need of our taking Porto Rico. Its inhabitants were not complaining of oppression. They had never asked our assistance. It is true that they welcomed us when we came. There is hardly an island in the West Indian group, British, Danish, or other, that would not welcome a change. They are all so desperately poor that they want to try something new, and they all feel instinctively that free trade with the United States would be good for them. This was the feeling of the Porto Ricans when President McKinley decided to carry the war to that island. They manifested their joy in such an exuberant way that the only glory gained by Gen. Miles came from his excellent choice of a landing-place. When once on terra firma, he found his pathway was strewn with flowers. We had never been asked to go there, but, when we had once come, the inhabitants threw their arms around us because they believed that free trade with the United States would be one of the results of the embrace.

The time has come for sitting down to this marriage feast, and now a skeleton appears and takes the leading place at the banquet. Its name is Protection to Home Industry. It comes to forbid the banns. It says that the tobacco and sugar and tropical fruits of this new possession and of the other islands that we have grabbed shall not come into the United States duty free. Coffee may come in, because

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

coffee is already on the free list and is not grown by us. So the Porto Ricans are advised to grow coffee. But coffee, like confidence, is a plant of slow growth. It takes years to bring a plantation to a productive state, and, after this is accomplished, Porto Rico will have no advantage in our market over Brazil, or Venezuela, or Mexico. The advice given to the inhabitants of our new insular possession, even if followed, would not help them for a long time to come. They might starve to death first. What they want and must have is either free trade with the United States, or donations from our Treasury or from private subscriptions until they can adapt themselves to their new conditions.

When the plan of free trade was proposed last month by the President and the Secretary of War, it was so warmly espoused by leading Republican newspapers that it seemed likely to go through Congress with a rush. But there has been a change of atmosphere, and this has been manifested nowhere more strikingly than in the columns of the New York *Tribune*, which has made a complete *volte-face* on this question inside of one week, and which now tells the Porto Ricans that they have not been annexed to this country and will not be, and that "Porto Rico has no concern with the laws of the United States." The fight has now been transferred to the committee on ways and means, with the hope of finding some middle ground between free trade and protection as regards the new possessions. We do not see any possible chance of compromise. It is evident also that the new reciprocity treaties have been put in jeopardy by the Porto Rican question.

Another complication is looming up in the distance, which must have been foreseen by the Administration long ago. It is found in our demand for the "open door" in China. The Philippine Islands are in the same situation, legal and constitutional, as Porto Rico. Whatever principle applies to one applies to the other. If any rule of law requires that the tariff system of the United States shall be extended over Porto Rico, it applies with equal force to the Philippines. But our tariff system is in absolute conflict with the "open door" policy. It forbids the admission of German, British, and French cotton goods, for example, except at the Dingley rates, which cannot be considered an open-door policy. It was reported from Washington the other day that one of the foreign Powers, with which Secretary Hay has been negotiating, while giving its assent to the "open door," has replied that it would expect the same principle to be applied by the United States to the Philippines.

This report was almost immediately contradicted, but, whether it be true or not, we may be quite sure that it will come true very soon. The foreign Powers that have made lodgment on Chinese territory will not keep the door open to our trade if we close the Philippines to their trade. Moreover, we have made a treaty with Spain by which we agree to keep the door open to her trade with the Philippines for ten years. How this treaty can be reconciled with the clause of the Constitution which says that all duties, imposts, and excises shall be *uniform* throughout the United States, is a nut for the Attorney-General to crack. How this treaty can be reconciled on principles of equity and fairness with differential duties in favor of Spain and against England, Germany, Russia, etc., is a nut for the Secretary of State to crack. The conclusion cannot be avoided that the Administration has involved itself in a tremendous tangle, legal, commercial, and political. Its policy of Imperialism, or Expansion, has brought it at loggerheads with the protectionists and in conflict with the Constitution of the United States. It contains also the germs of a quarrel with European Powers over trade regulations in Eastern Asia.

DOMESTIC FREE TRADE.

The alarm of some of the Connecticut farmers who grow tobacco over the possibility that free trade may be established between this country and Porto Rico, illustrates once more a perennial characteristic of protected industries—their timidity. The acuteness of the alarm in the case referred to may be gauged by the fact that the value of the tobacco crop of the United States, according to the returns for 1896, was $24,258,070, taking as approximately correct the returns of the Agricultural Department; while the average export of tobacco from Porto Rico for the years 1893-97, inclusive, was only $450,485. To put it differently, after free trade with Porto Rico, the $1,325,668 worth of tobacco produced in Connecticut would find $450,485 worth added to the $22,932,402 of domestic tobacco with which the Connecticut product comes into competition.

One of the most destructive arguments against the theory that an industry must suffer "ruin" from increased competition is furnished by the figures of our own country's increasing industrial growth. At any period of its existence a protected industry is ready to cry out that a change in the tariff which will let in a few pounds more of raw material, or a few thousand dollars' worth more of manufactured products from any foreign port, will "ruin" it. All the time, however, in a large country like the United States, a growth of internal competition is taking place which exceeds in many instances any possible rivalry that could spring up from abroad.

An article printed very recently in the *Evening Post* called attention to the increasing competition which the East meets from our Western States. The Eastern farmer met this same competition as soon as the transcontinental railroads were opened, and succumbed to it. He no longer expects to raise wheat to sell; but he produces more milk, raises more potatoes and more fruit, and, although, like his Western farm brother, he has gone through some trying years since the war, he is not "ruined." The Eastern iron-miner next felt the competition, and the opening up of the rich product of Lake Superior for a time closed nearly every iron mine in New Jersey. That State, however, continued to increase in wealth, and the turn in trade during the last year has seen a reopening of Eastern mines and a rekindling of Eastern furnaces, without any falling off in Western production. Now it is noted as nothing uncommon to see a New Hampshire farmer using a cart stamped with the name of an Illinois or a Michigan maker, or a stove cast in Iowa, or a washing-machine made in Indiana. Michigan furniture makers have opened salesrooms in the fashionable district of this city, and Indiana-made carriages challenge comparison with the daintiest output of popular New York makers.

The recent domestic competition of our Southern States has been still more noticeable. The coal product of these States went from 1,963,574 tons in 1880 to 14,672,520 tons in 1896. The pig-iron produced there increased from 559,400 tons in 1885 to 1,646,410 tons in 1896. Pennsylvania felt the effects of some of this competition, but, instead of being "ruined," it nearly doubled its tonnage of coal and pig-iron produced in the same period. In very recent years an industry entirely new to the South has been established there, cotton-manufacturing. This has made wonderful progress, and in doing so has caused a good deal of nervousness among New England millowners. But the situation seems to be adjusting itself quietly, and a not improbable result of the competition will be a better acquaintance and a better feeling between the business men of the two sections.

If secession had carried the South out of the Union, and an independent republic had also been established in the West, it is easy to define the tariff laws that Eastern protected industries would have been demanding in establishing our relations with these neighbors. Pennsylvania iron would have had to be protected against that of the Mesaba Range, and against the coal and iron of Alabama and Tennessee; New Jersey and New York would have asked a duty on Western wheat and corn, while New England would have rushed to Washington with a pallid face to beg that the cotton products of the worse than pauper labor of the Carolinas be stopped at Mason and Dixon's line. These demands would doubtless have been listened to.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

We may smile now at the industrial chaos which such a tariff system would have produced; but the history of attempts to regulate production and prices by Government does not lack chapters devoted to that exploiting of protection wherein the state attempts to control its internal trade. In the days of Colbert it was an accepted principle in France, not only that her farmers should not be permitted to export grain at their pleasure to foreign countries, but that there should be restrictions on its movement from one province of France to another. The question whether grain could be exported formed every year one of the gravest subjects of cabinet discussions. The result of this attempt to prevent famines was that in those days a famine might be counted on to occur on an average once in nine years, and that the internally protected home market, which now grows almost enough wheat to supply 40,000,000 people, could not in the eighteenth century keep half that population from starvation. Along with this attempt to control the food supply were other trade regulations, such as the one which made it a galleys offence to manufacture a piece of linen except in a certain way, to give it more than a certain length, or to dye it except as the law required. "They do for us," said one complainant, "what the Chinese do for the feet of their women: we are bound so tightly in rules that we cannot grow." But we are told that the least relaxation of these restrictions for many years called out a complaint from some monopoly, which restored the abuse, while their final abolition gave real life to French trade.

Tariff reform is subject to many discouragements. The simple fact that tariff laws are only one of the elements which enter into business prosperity or stagnation, renders it easy to blind the eyes of the people to the real bearing of our tariff laws on trade. If, however, we are to add outside territory like that of Porto Rico to our national domain, it will eventually have to share in the trade of the country as the States do now, and if the competition does not "ruin" anything, one more protective argument will be overthrown.

THE JUSTIFICATION OF WEALTH.

The persistent way in which the rich insist upon bestowing their wealth on educational and philanthropic enterprises, is a social phenomenon of great significance. One can hardly take up a newspaper nowadays without reading about the gift of a hospital, a library, a workingmen's institute, a scholarship, or a substantial addition to some existing endowment. Most striking of all, perhaps, is the fact that the donors are, in many instances, men and women hitherto unknown—persons with hardly more than a local reputation for wealth, and whose names come to public notice only when their gifts are announced.

The administration and direction of this volume of benevolence call, as a rule, only for admiration. Time was when a man of large means, especially if his philanthropic bent came late in life, might almost be expected to do some questionable thing—to found a charity of doubtful serviceableness, or establish a superfluous college hedged round with vexatious restrictions, or put his money where he or his heirs could get some personal advertisement out of it, while at the same time keeping the virtual control of it in their own hands. There is little of that sort of thing now. The day of indiscriminate and unintelligent giving in any form is rapidly passing. So far as the poor are concerned, the larger proportion of gifts now flow through organized associations, where the relief of want and distress is a matter of scientific study and business management. Men have rather got out of the way, too, of starting new universities on slender endowments, and are much more disposed to strengthen institutions long established, and whose skilful financial administration and high reputation for scholarship give promise of permanence. Our rapidly enlarging equipment of industrial schools, again, is a fine example of well-directed giving; while every one knows that colleges, hospitals, libraries, and missions live, move, and have their being in the bounty of the well-to-do.

One cannot avoid the conclusion that this spread of unsolicited philanthropy testifies to a broadening and deepening sense of responsibility for the common welfare on the part of those who command large resources. The day has gone by when a rich man may keep his money to himself, or leave the whole of it to his relatives at his death, and escape severe censure. Public opinion has come to expect, if not to demand, something different. The well-known saying that no citizen of Boston would dare to die without leaving something to Harvard College, is only a localized expression of what has come to be, for numberless communities, a recognized social obligation. The first thing we ask, when the death of some wealthy citizen is announced, is, What are his public bequests? and if, perchance, there be none, the knowledge that the public interest has been ignored never fails to come as a distinct disappointment. The Rev. Dr. Richard S. Storrs of Brooklyn remarked humorously in a public address, two or three years ago, that he had resolved not to preach the funeral sermon of another rich man until he knew what his will was. Certainly, in this feeling of obligation for the well-being of the community, and of individual accountability to public opinion, we may find one of the best assurances of the health and soundness of our American society. We may be very material in our aims, and very matter-of-fact in our ordinary views of things; but so long as those who reap the largest rewards of ability and industry share their earnings generously with their neighbors, the oft-heralded dangers of accumulated wealth can hardly fail to seem still remote.

It is curious to see, too, how the increasing flow of benevolence has helped to dull the edge of some of the difficulties which much social speculation has, in our day, raised up. It goes far, for example, towards reconciling us to the presence of the rich among us. There is an obvious incongruity in denouncing great fortunes when the possessors of them support our hospitals and asylums, maintain our free public libraries, endow our manual-training schools, feed the hungry, clothe the naked, and bring sunshine and pleasure to the children of the slums. The wild tirade of anarchism and the dreams of a socialist state in which all shall share alike, lose appreciably in both effectiveness and charm in the presence of men and women who seem to gather only that they may later scatter abroad. It is not even easy to be very vindictive towards the Trusts, so long as the few who profit by them do not hoard their gains.

That the rich in this country are still, to some degree, on the defensive, and bound to demonstrate their right to keep permanently what they have honestly earned, is, of course, clear enough to any one who follows current social discussion; but it is even more clear that they are justifying themselves in our day as never before, and that, too, before the very ones who have been their most bitter, because their most ignorant, critics. It is significant that in the United States, where individual accumulation of wealth has gone on most rapidly, and where the "money power" has been most in evidence, this sense of personal responsibility, of which we have spoken, has most developed. No European country can begin to compare with our own in the private benefactions of its citizens.

JOHN RUSKIN.

The success of 'Modern Painters,' the work in which the late Mr. Ruskin made his début in 1843, was most remarkable—both in the rapidity with which it followed publication, and in the extent of it, among English and American readers. The audacity, the novelty, and the supreme self-confidence of its opinions disconcerted the more deliberate and hum-drum or conservative art critics of the old school; while the enthusiasm and pyrotechnic style with which the Oxford graduate attacked all the traditions of art criticism, involving in one wide sweep of rhetorical iconoclasm all the ideals of landscape art—Claude, Poussin, all the Dutchmen except Ruysdael, who was allowed the limbo of the innocents—were so attractive, so convincing to the unreason of the mass of readers that all opposition was for the moment overcome. The author of 'Modern Painters,' having demolished all the sovereigns of landscape art hitherto recognized, put Turner on the vacant throne and installed himself as his chief minister and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

interpreter. In this office, speaking as one having authority, and believing absolutely in his vocation, he silenced for years all public dissent, established Turner in the English mind not only as the greatest of all landscape painters of all time, but as the true, sincere, and consistent limner of Nature, and her most faithful adorer. The public, possessed of no definite knowledge of the true principles of art or art criticism, not only accepted the new doctrine, but really believed that they saw in Turner's pictures a faithful, naturalistic interpretation of nature; and as the number of those whose artistic education qualified them to compare the new standards with the old, and strip the rhetorical wrappings from the new ideas, was, as it always is, very small, and mainly not given to words, Ruskin long held the field. His influence over art cultivation and art encouragement in England was most extraordinary, and to this day has not lost all of its force. The artists in general, and the few men who by special education were qualified to weigh his dogmas, were almost without exception against him, and, in the way they could, denounced his system of advocacy as false in premise and conclusion. Nevertheless with the unsound teaching as to art there was mingled so much and so splendid preaching of the beauty of nature, such new and startling advocacy of our allegiance to the universal mother, that it seemed cynical and ungrateful to enter into conflict with a man who was opening the eyes of multitudes to things they had never before seen, and urging the power of nature over human happiness as no one had ever urged it. It was this feeling that Ruskin's moral aim was more correct than his artistic, which won the sympathy of true students of art proper, while the power of his rhetoric made it hopeless to controvert him with the general public.

No mistake, however, could be graver than that with which the young critic set out (he was twenty-four when the 'Modern Painters' was written). He was a lover of nature, with the nearest approach to passion of which he was capable, and his religious bent was so strong that he was long in suspense whether he should go into the Church or devote himself to art. Unfortunately for both, he chose the latter, for, with his intense moral earnestness and his rhetorical power, he certainly would, as his father said, have become a bishop; but, more than that, he would probably, under the influence of the strong humanitarianism which became the dominant influence of his later life, have quickened the religious sentiment as it has not been quickened in educated people in our day. On the other hand, the cardinal doctrine with which he started, erred in setting up the closest possible representation of nature as the truest (not necessarily, however, the highest) art; and the education of the artist which he prescribed was the most rigorous and literal study of nature in detail and in general. He taught people to look at nature, and many to think they saw in it what he described; and as his teaching came at the moment of the great naturalistic movement which led men to science with unusual interest, and coincided with the development of photography, which taught people how the facts of nature could really be shown, the public caught gladly at the new doctrine of æsthetics, that all that was needed to become a connoisseur was to know what was like nature. Another equally earnest and equally mistaken movement—so far, at least, as art education is concerned—which helped to foster this naturalistic movement, was that known as the pre-Raphaelite school. It is still to a certain extent supposed that this was a result of Ruskin's teaching, but this is entirely erroneous. Not one of the founders of the school had ever read ten pages of Ruskin's writing when they formed the association known as the P. R. B. It was a coincidence which met photography by the way.

The 'Modern Painters' will always be the book which will mark Ruskin's place in reference to art literature, and it shows all his strength and all his fallacy. In the reprint of the entire work, dated in 1873, he says: "Of the art teaching and landscape description it contains, I have little to retouch and nothing to detract." And, in fact, throughout the entire series of his works we find no essential departure from this doctrine, formed more from poetic fervor than from artistic acumen. His art teaching was always based on the purely objective methods—literal, and as far as possible photographic, rendering of nature, with the distinct recognition of the devotional element as an imperious necessity in the purpose of art. "I assert, with sorrow," he says, in the preface to the second edition, "that all hitherto done in landscape by those commonly conceived its masters has never prompted one holy thought in the minds of nations. It has begun and ended in exhibiting the dexterities of individuals and conventionalities of systems. Filling the world with the honor of Claude and Salvator, it has never once tended to the honor of God." And the dishonor of God was the "painter's taking it upon him to modify God's works at his pleasure, casting the shadow of himself on all that he sees. . . . Every alteration of the features of nature has its origin either in powerless indolence or blind audacity; in the folly which forgets or the insolence which desecrates works which it is the pride of angels to know and their privilege to love." This view of art has always, then as now, been repudiated by all thoughtful artists and mature critics; but Ruskin was then in the flush of a wordy and self-satisfied youth, mistaking sensations for conviction, and what he conceived for absolute truth. He was too young to have given due comparison, too ardent to respect any opinion differing from his own, and too rhetorical to sacrifice his style to the truth he preached, or a telling alliteration or glowing image to scientific accuracy in his statements.

Ruskin's definition of art always lacked precision because he never went to the root of the matter. When he says, "The art is greatest which conveys to the mind of the spectator by any means whatsoever the greatest number of the greatest ideas," he only shows that he confounds the intellectual quality of the artist with the artistic, while they are really utterly distinct; the former consisting entirely in the subject-matter of the conceptions which he begins with, the latter in the manner of embodying them.

In the chapter on the "Truth of Color," in connection with the commentary on Poussin's "Aricia," there occurs a famous passage which must be quoted here:

"The noon-day sun came slanting down the rocky slopes of La Riccia, and their masses of entangled and tall foliage, whose autumnal tints were mixed with the wet verdure of a thousand evergreens, were penetrated with it as with rain. I cannot call it color—it was conflagration. *Purple and crimson and scarlet, like the curtains of God's tabernacle, the rejoicing trees sank into the valley in showers of light, every separate leaf quivering with buoyant and burning life; each, as it turned to reflect or to transmit the sunbeam, first a torch and then an emerald.* Far up into the recesses of the valley, the green vistas arched like the hollows of mighty waves of some crystalline sea, with the arbutus flowers dashed along their flanks for foam, and silver flakes of orange spray tossed into the air around them, breaking over the gray walls of rock into a thousand separate stars, fading and kindling alternately as the weak wind lifted and let them fall. *Every glade of grass burned like the golden floor of heaven*, opening in sudden gleams as the foliage broke and closed above it as sheet lightning opens in a cloud at sunset; the motionless masses of dark rock—dark, though flushed with scarlet lichen—*casting their quiet shadows across its restless radiance*, the fountain underneath them *filling its marble hollow with blue mist and fitful sound;* and over all the multitudinous bars of amber and rose, the sacred clouds that have no darkness and only exist to illumine, were seen in fathomless intervals between the solemn and orbed repose of the stone pines, passing to lose themselves in the last, white blinding lustre of the measureless line where the Campagna melted into the blaze of the sea. Tell me who is likest this, Poussin or Turner?"

We believe that in this passage, one of the most brilliant ever written by Ruskin, will be found the epitome of his entire system of thought and criticism, the secret of his popularity and of his failure—for so far as permanent influence on the tendencies of art is concerned, or the establishment of a true system of art-culture, Ruskin has utterly failed. Space forbids our following through all its fallacies his system of teaching or exhortation, and an analysis of the foregoing passage must suffice. The reply to the question, "Poussin or Turner?" should be simply, Turner rather than Poussin, but not in the least nature. No one but a madman could conceive that the description of La Riccia resembled the actual scene either as a whole or in many of its details. As language it is magnificent, but it is not criticism or description. We have passed more months in Aricia than Ruskin hours; and never, in rain or sunshine, was there to be seen what 'Modern Painters' contains. There is not a single detail true to the scene. The arbutus does not grow at Aricia, and its flowers have no such value in a landscape, while of all landscape in the world that of Italy is the least disposed to the extravagances of color—"scarlet lichen," "purple, crimson, and scarlet"; and every landscape painter in Rome knows that Poussin's picture is more like nature in its general impression than Turner, and beyond any comparison more than Ruskin, whose poetic magniloquence is rather apocalyptic than scientific.

Ruskin's judgments in art were as partial and inaccurate as his descriptions of nature. His criticisms were in general, if not always, prompted by matters of detail. His sense of color, as may be inferred from the abuse of color epithet in the above description, was deficient, although his susceptibility to color impression was great—as we sometimes see a man morbidly subject to the power of music, but incapable of sounding a note correctly himself. He persuaded himself that Turner's color was right because he liked it, and he could account for its power over him in no other way than as due to its naturalism. In his own painting, he could never hit the color of any natural object, except as simple local color removed from all complications of effect. In landscape study he seemed always to be seeking for the color which Turner gave, and he seriously argued that it was relatively true to the actual tints of nature. In all the strictly artistic faculties he was as singularly deficient as he was gifted in language. What most excited his admiration in the work of an artist at first acquaintance was, that he should find in it something which he himself had attempted to do and failed in; and many were the young artists whom he possessed himself of in the attempt to lead them to do for him what his own hand was incapable of, failing which they lost all interest for him. He was always wanting, to use the expression of an artist who knew him well, to find somebody who would hold the brush while he himself painted.

The five volumes of the 'Modern Painters' are the embodiment of an art system which is his own, and which is not art but a kind of refined and poetic naturalism. The 'Seven Lamps of Architecture' is a fascinating apology for mysticism in art, and the 'Stones of Venice' a contribution of high and permanent value to the history of architecture and of Venice—yes, more than this, a splendid defence of the distinctive character of Venetian architecture as against the classical. The latter, however, in its pure form, the true Greek Temple, Ruskin never appreciated or understood. He never could draw the figure, and had no sympathy with it in art. Watts relates his wondering what he found to interest him in the Oxford Venus, of which a cast was in the artist's studio, and which Ruskin regarded as simply an ugly thing. He could never see any beauty in the horse, and naturally never comprehended the Greek ideal.

We are inclined to think that of the minor and later works the 'Fors Clavigera' will remain that which possesses most interest for the public, embodying as it does for the longest period the personal character and peculiarities of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

thought and style of the author, although in this, as in the 'Præterita,' an exaggerated estimate of the value of his opinion and his position in the great world of thought is strongly developed throughout. His opinions, he held, were not opinions but positive knowledge—a claim to infallibility which the absurd adulation he received all his life from a part of the world around him easily explains. His intellectual character always inclined rather to the devotional than the rational. With all the weaknesses of the evangelical temperament, he had all its exaltation, and, grounded in the most orthodox Calvinism, he never faltered in it until he was nearly forty, when, being shaken in his faith in the doctrines in which he had grown up, he went rapidly over to conscientious scepticism, remaining in that condition for some years, and finally swinging back, as most men will as they grow old, towards the faith of childhood.

Ruskin's genius was of that order which is closely allied to madness; and overwork, undertaken with the noblest intentions, the perplexities and disappointments of an apostolate voluntarily and self-sacrificingly engaged in, but unproductive of any visible results, and the natural drift of such an eccentric and contradictory intellect, contemptuous of all criticism or comparison, led, perhaps, to the attacks of cerebral disorder and partial insanity which darkened his later life. His practical experiments at beneficence failed, owing to his total incapacity to read human nature and his ignorance of or contempt for the actual conditions of life in his own day. His benevolence towards the working classes was unbounded, but he never knew in what they differed from himself except opportunity. He desired the influences of nature for the poor as for the rich, and yet bitterly assailed railroads, which alone could enable the workingmen to see the remote and new; was the implacable enemy of labor-saving machinery, and could not comprehend that it frees the toiler from the most servile of his labors, or see that in the country where it is most used the position of the workingman is the highest.

The circumstances of Ruskin's married life are too well known to need mention, but the secret of its failure was possibly in the unmasculine character of his mind. He was a succession of impulses, incapable of purely personal attachment, and cherishing individuals either as embodying his ideas, supplying his craving for admiration or reverence, or as grateful recipients of his protection. When these failed even in tried friends, he dropped them as completely as if they had never existed for him. He cannot be compared to a meteor in our intellectual firmament, but rather to one of those blazing stars which burst out in startling brilliancy, and then subside to permanent but unobtrusive light. He will never be forgotten, but his effect on the development of human thought is not likely to outlive him by much, and his influence on art is practically at an end.

IMPRESSIONS IN THE MEXICAN HIGHLANDS.—IV.

CHIHUAHUA, September, 1899.

Virtue is always so modest and vice so obtrusive that a foreigner is almost certain, in taking account of his impressions of a new people, to find that his acquaintance with their weaknesses is more noteworthy than his knowledge of their better traits. To pass judgment, and estimate the character of a people, on such a basis of partial information would inevitably lead to injustice. It is far safer, and apt to approach more closely to the truth, to assume that the best one sees is typical, for the aims and aspirations of a nation that is not decadent and moribund are ever towards the nobler qualities which their social system has been capable of calling into being. The wholesale condemnation of the Mexicans, and contempt for their ways of doing and thinking, which one finds among the English-speaking communities in their country, are unworthy of a race which by nature is generous and just.

To be sure, there are customs among the Mexicans which are abhorrent to our sense of propriety and morality. Any one who has travelled extensively in Spanish America knows that these are not peculiar to Mexico. Our contact with Cuba and Porto Rico has brought us into closer touch with these practices, and has taught some of our people to look upon them with a larger modicum of charity than has been our wont in the past. The taking of a wife without regard to the sanctions of law and religion is not commendable, but the desertions which are rendered easy by this loose bond are so much more common on the part of members of the foreign colony, who have taken advantage of the system, than among the natives, that the evil of it has been worked out more especially by the Gringo. Why and how it happened that these unsacramental unions came to be accepted in Spanish America as practically blameless, so that no great loss of respect follows upon those who contract them, is not easy of explanation. There were difficulties in impressing upon the minds of the native races the importance of marriage according to the usage of the Church; and the itinerancy of the missionaries, who early submitted to the establishment of the precedent of confirming wedlock which had been entered into during their periods of prolonged absence from a community, may have had much to do with it. The practice, however, is slowly dying out, and is not countenanced at all by the better classes in Mexico, while the fierce jealousy which one sees and hears of among those who live in this condition is a sufficient argument against that licentious disregard of the proprieties which is so commonly imputed to them.

That bull-fighting is a favorite amusement of the people is well known, and the passion for it is by no means exaggerated. It is the complement of northern pugilism, and doubtless less degrading to both spectators and participants. It certainly requires equal skill and more courage. But even this sport is declining, and becoming relegated to the coarser portions of society. It is averred, by those who ought to know, that Chihuahua is cruder than many other States in Mexico, but to-day one will see very few of the higher classes at the bull-fights, and the absence of ladies is conspicuous.

The Spaniard has ever been devoted to gaming, and when one considers that it is the curse of all the Indian races of America, there is little cause for wonder that among their mixed descendants it has become the supreme vice, the all-absorbing passion of the masses. The roulette table is conducted in the open; gambling games at cards are universal; and the cock-pit flourishes on every hand. Wherever one goes, he meets these pampered fighting-cocks, tied by one leg to a stake with a yard of string; carried tenderly in the arms of young sports who will expatiate endlessly on the prowess and physical perfection of the wretched fowls; or bundled up in big straw hats, fastened in with the baggage on the stage-coaches, and cackling with astonishment at every lurch of the vehicle. The itinerant cock-fighter is invariably the most popular traveller on the road, meeting with distinguished consideration at every post station, in spite of the fact that he usually sweeps into his own wallet most of the pocket money from the communities he honors with a visit.

The drinking habit, mankind's universal vice, is here rampant, producing its inevitable harvest of crime and poverty. That it is worse in Mexico than in the United States would be unfair to say, but it certainly seems to be more constantly in evidence. The destructive effects upon the constitution of the use of mezcal, that fiery distillate from the pulque, are very terrible. Its devotees fall into something worse than mere alcoholism. Like a narcotic, it appears to shatter the nervous system, destroying the capacity and the will for continuous labor. In view of the ravages it has wrought, the introduction of beer by foreign companies which have established extensive breweries in Chihuahua, Monterey, and other places, may be regarded as a blessing. The popularity of the domestic beers has become so great that they are carried in large quantities throughout the country, and even far into the mountains, hundreds of miles from the railroad. The use of the original corn-beer, or *deshuino*, has largely been superseded by other beverages, to the detriment of the lower classes. It is exceedingly mild, and has important food qualities, and is the least harmful form in which the natives could indulge their craving for intoxicants. For the making of *deshuino*, the common white corn of the country is soaked, and then packed in baskets with a covering of pine sprays weighted with stones, until it has begun to sprout. It is then dried in the sun, after which it is ground to a pulp on one of those hollowed stone *metates* which still form one of the essential culinary utensils in nearly every Mexican household. The pulp is now boiled for twenty-four hours, and fermented for three days. It thus contains the nutritive qualities of the corn but very slightly impaired. If prepared in a more scientific manner, its pungent taste and rather disagreeable odor could doubtless be reduced, and its reintroduction as a native beverage would be a distinct advantage to the common people as a substitute for the harmful potions which they now imbibe so freely. Although the lower classes are ever too ready with their daggers and pistols, the most of the sanguinary affrays which are perpetually occurring are the direct results of strong drink, and the evil is a menace to the growth of the country. Whatever will tend to the amelioration of this condition will be a gain for the entire commonwealth.

One characteristic of the Mexicans, which is very striking to a person familiar with the other Spanish-American republics, is their brusqueness of manner. Good-hearted and obliging though they are, one misses regretfully that suavity of manner, that overflowing courtesy and politeness, which are instinctively looked for in those of Spanish blood. In South America even your servant is apt to display the finished breeding of a diplomat. Here, however, he brushes rudely against you, holds his position stolidly in a doorway, letting you crowd past him as best you can, and evinces an indifference toward you on all occasions that is often irritating. The same spirit is man-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ifest, also, among those of high degree. They are cold, not from haughtiness, but from lack of spontaneous gallantry of nature. This affects a newcomer unfavorably at first, until he learns that beneath it all there is a warmth of feeling, a generosity and kindliness, which can be counted on when needed. On direct appeal it comes forth promptly, though it might never have been volunteered. They will render you every possible assistance if you only ask it, will discommode themselves, will share the best they have with you, and will accept remuneration only under pressure, if at all. The traveller need never fare worse than the natives themselves if he will make his wants known. But it counts for much if he can address them in the vernacular. The boast of the English-speaking public that the Spanish language is not necessary, and that the English tongue is triumphing even in Mexico, is vain and foolish. The cultured Mexicans are, indeed, quite generally able to speak English, but they regard it as a compliment to be spoken to in their own beloved *Castellano*, and it wins astonishing favor with the masses. More than this, it brings contempt upon one not to be able to use it. The sufferings of a foreigner in this country, particularly in the remoter districts, are in inverse proportion to his linguistic attainments.

The comforts obtainable are few at best, but the difference between getting these, and putting up with what falls in the way of the helpless tourist, is enormous. The wayside inns are simple and crude. A single small, square room, with earthen floor, a fireplace, whose chimney quite as often draws downward as upward, a homemade bedstead innocent of springs—this is all one finds. You are expected to carry your own blankets and mattress, but a word to the keeper of the hostelry will provide you with sheets and pillows, a wash basin, and a pitcher of water. A little fanning of the fires of human sympathy by an exchange of compliments with your host will open up the way for increasing your supper with fried chicken, milk, and eggs. Except for this you would fare on brown beans, tortillas, and tough meat volcanic with *picante*. These are tortures which it is worth while to acquire the Spanish language to escape. The indigestible, leathery character of the tortilla is beyond anything one would imagine could be produced by simply baking a cake of cornmeal dough on a hot stone, while the scorching fury of *picante* sauce is an agonizing torment. It is fiery even to the sight with its flaming red color, and the wonder is that the hands of the women, plunged up to the wrists in this terrible condiment while making it, are not withered to the bone. The Mexican housewife, however, makes amends for these offences against a delicate taste by manufacturing a mild and savory cheese, and by preparing cocoa in her little earthen pot with a wooden *molinillo* as no other cook in the world has learned to make it. The only fault with this delicious beverage is the cinnamon, which, in obedience to universal demand, is incorporated in all the cocoa and chocolate made for the Mexican trade. But if you carry your own supply of the raw material, your hostess will produce a cup which no New York restaurant can equal.

If you are courteous and affable, and show that you know a good steed and are competent to ride him, your host will even loan you his saddle-horse, a proof of respect remarkable in any country. The fine gentleman is still the horseman, the *caballero*, the gracious and accomplished knight, in Mexico. It is a joy to sally forth for a canter on the mesa with such splendid animals as are found here, with companions who are never so much at ease as when in the saddle. There is no ostentation, no conspicuous habit nor showy manner in these Mexican cavaliers. They may wear *chaparreras*, leather trousers, but these are for a purpose. Without them one would suffer hardships in pushing through the scrubby growth of chaparral. But the gaudy costumes we have been accustomed to associate with the Mexican horsemen exist more in travellers' tales than in real life.

After a ride with one of these rural Dons, if you have acquitted yourself creditably, and proved your title to *caballero* in all its breadth of meaning, the door to familiar friendship stands open wide. Then you begin to see something of the home life, the tender affection which binds the family together, and the imperial status of woman in this select circle. Though she will not assume responsibility without consulting her husband, he defers to her in everything. Her wish becomes his will. She is cognizant of all that occurs, guides and directs it all, is familiar with all the business affairs of the hacienda. She invariably looks after the store, she and her daughters. Perhaps she might do more to make the home attractive to the eye, but she is the true helpmeet and often the mainstay of her lord. For this we can forgive large lack of taste. Æsthetics have so far taken no important place in the culture of these people. There is almost no effort at decoration, beyond a few flowers in the patio, and the cultivation of musical attainments is in its infancy. The Mexicans are songless as compared with other Latin races; the twang of the guitar and the plaintive melodies of the *canciones* are almost never heard. One would suppose them insensible to the charms of music, but it seems to be only a dormant faculty. In the plaza and on the alameda at Chihuahua, as well as in many of the smaller towns, the population turns out in force to hear the bands, whose performances are often of a high order. Moreover, it is when the classic compositions of the great masters are played that the enthusiasm and applause of the crowds are greatest.

Still, it is plain that their advance in art is slow. They are a practical people. They do not imagine that they are all born poets, and musicians, and painters. No restrictions would have to be imposed by the press here upon aspiring poetasters, as editors so often find necessary for self-protection in South America. Their schools display the same practical turn of thought. They afford a simple but solid groundwork for future growth. In a feeble manner, but not without value for the oncoming generations, they give manual training to both boys and girls. They are laying foundation stones for political strength by including, even in the common schools, instruction in the Constitution and system of government of their country. Rather curiously, the Church is not ever-prominent with its functions and demands upon the people, as it is in the countries farther south. The hold of the Church is powerful, no doubt, but the people are not bond-slaves to a grasping priesthood. The fanaticism one reads of is seen most commonly in the distant interior, where it is wholly spontaneous, and, far from being incited by the clergy, breaks through the restrictions which they impose, inducing conflicts with both ecclesiastical and civil authority; in some instances having led to serious disturbances of the peace.

I speak of the State of Chihuahua only. Conditions here are different from those obtaining in many other parts of Mexico. It is a border State, a frontier State, but recently rescued from the savage, accustomed to outlawry and that exaggerated independence of the individual pertaining to pioneer life throughout the world. There is in consequence a mingling of the extremes of good and bad. But everywhere is found a veneration of that one superb type of manly strength and excellence, President Porfirio Diaz. The impress of his splendid personality is stamped upon the people, and from him they draw an inspiration which has done more, perhaps, than all else combined to stimulate civic virtues and a spirit of progress among the inhabitants of this highland region.

THE EDUCATIONAL CRISIS IN FRANCE.

New York, January, 1900.

France is at this moment, among other crises, passing through one of education. At least it is under the title of "une crise de l'enseignement" that publicists and teachers are ventilating their consultations and plans for reforming the lycées and the colleges. Virtually, secondary instruction alone is in question—the system, namely, intermediate between the public school and the university, which prepares the young French bourgeoisie for the "liberal careers" of physician, magistrate, advocate, military officer, or professor. The primary education regulated by the Jules Ferry laws of 1881-82 that founded obligatory, gratuitous, and lay instruction for the people, is solidly established, and is the pride of the republican party, which has swelled its budget from three millions under the July monarchy to a hundred millions. The higher education, on the other hand, likewise more and more enriched by state endowments and strengthened by the recent law concerning the universities, grows steadily in numbers and in influence. The secondary education alone is still in process of transformation, and, owing to its vicious methods or its insufficient adaptation to modern needs, has for twenty years provoked innumerable criticisms. A committee formed with reference to an international congress to be held during the Exposition, explained in its circular the importance of this question, which is, it says, "closely allied to the transformations of society at the present time." "Formerly reserved for a very select few, secondary instruction is constantly being opened to more numerous majorities, who seek in it the advantages of a higher intellectual culture." Accordingly, for some years, countless attempts at reform have been essayed, abandoned, and renewed. The baccalaureate has been so diversified as to assume six or eight different forms. But the problem still awaits solution.

Everybody knows the place which the lycée or college holds in French life. It is a sort of boarding-school established by the State in all towns of 10,000 inhabitants or thereabouts, and which children enter

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

at ten or even eight years of age, remaining till they are eighteen, and learning Latin, Greek, German, English, mathematics, and philosophy, in order to obtain the bachelor's degree. Without this, a Frenchman can be neither lawyer, doctor, nor officer, nor fill any of the thousand positions which the State bestows on the citizens of a country in which the love of functionarism is a national and hereditary evil, going back, as M. Lavisse has proved, to the seventeenth century, when the King created places to sell to the bourgeoisie as a mode of raising the wind. As for the colleges themselves, to know one is to know all. The uniformity fixed by the Napoleonic system which bounds centralized France on every side, is such that a Minister of Public Instruction once boasted that he could tell what lesson all the pupils in the country were engaged upon at a given hour. French colleges all rest on the system founded by the Jesuits, and the greater number are still installed in old ecclesiastical edifices of the last century. What this system is, with its monotonous regimen, from the morning drum-beat that rouses the pupils in the great dormitories where they sleep all together, and summons them hour by hour to the class-room, to recess, to commons, until the evening call which brings them back two by two, under surveillance, to their beds, to begin over again the next morning—all this has been described and cursed a thousand times, and there is not a Frenchman in whom it does not evoke melancholy recollections. I remember, for my part, the time, not very remote, when pupils were obliged to eat in silence, and when the least infraction of this rule was punished with forfeiture of walks and recreation. In many aspects this life suggests that of a prison, and more than one writer has compared it to the hulks. Alphonse Daudet, who in his youth held the unpleasant post of usher (*pion*) in one of these barracks, has left a graphic and pathetic picture of it in 'Le Petit Chose.'

As for the inconveniences of all kinds, intellectual and moral, resulting from these agglomerations of youths of different conditions, brought up by ushers, far from their parents, they can easily be guessed. But, side by side with these barrack dangers, which have been largely remedied, there continues in force the pedagogical system which imposes on every boy whose parents wish to give him a liberal education the uniform instruction in Greek and Latin, crowned by the uniform examination for the baccalaureate. In this formidable test good students often fail, while mediocre ones succeed, and its exaction of a superficial and encyclopædic knowledge distorts studies, fetters all progressive tuition, and paralyzes all original initiative.

For ten years some of the most eminent French professors have raised the war-cry, "Death to the baccalaureate." In 1885 a brilliant writer, Raoul Frary, who had had the strictest classical training, published, under the title "The Question of Latin," a violent and plausible arraignment of the teaching of dead languages. M. Lavisse, unquestionably one of the boldest spirits and most intelligent innovators in the French universities, has for a decade past incessantly denounced the mischiefs of the baccalaureate. M. Gebhart, a witty professor at the Sorbonne, who avows having made more than 1,600 bachelors in his lifetime, has written in these terms: "The baccalaureate has killed good study." M. Boutmy, the liberal Director of the School of Political Sciences, has firmly called for the abolition of instruction in Greek, and has joined the resolute adversaries of the baccalaureate. Two years ago, Jules Lemaître, before he became a demagogical "nationalist," delivered at the Sorbonne one of his cleverest discourses against the superstition of classical study, and pitilessly made game of the bourgeois respect for the young bachelor, whom he called a "monster of nothingness."

All this agitation of opinion ended by coming up before the Parliament. A grand committee was formed, presided over by the former Prime Minister, M. Ribot. The inquiry it entered upon lasted from the 17th of January to the 27th of March, 1899. It received 196 depositions from all the professors, writers, pedagogues (professional or amateur) who had anything to say on the subject. Even ecclesiastics, like Père Didon, a director of large schools, were asked to give their advice. M. Fouillée, who so actively combated M. Lemaître's theories and defended classical instruction, was listened to as well as M. Lavisse. All these conferences have been gathered into two great volumes of 600 pages, which constitute the fullest and most profitable inquiry ever made concerning education in France.

But along with the question of reforming the baccalaureate, of suppressing the barrack, of the place to be assigned to classical studies, of the necessity of opening certain careers (like medicine, or even the law) to young men ignorant of the dead languages—along with these purely pedagogic questions, which have a wide social bearing, another has just been raised much more burning and wholly political. It is whether the State should continue to let the instruction it gives be undermined by the confessional instruction of the Roman Catholic congregations. Now the congregations—Jesuit, Marist, Eudist, and others—compete powerfully with the State. In every city, opposite the lay college is set up an ecclesiastical house which also fits for the baccalaureate. For various reasons, partly from religious conviction, but especially out of social snobbery, the rich bourgeoisie prefers to send its children to the religious. Their instruction, however it may have improved, cannot be compared with that afforded by the admirable corps of professors which the École Normale Supérieure and the French universities send to the State colleges. But the *education* is supposed to be better. Hence all the *Monsieur Jourdains* and the *Monsieur Poiriers* of the bourgeoisie are proud to see their sons in the same school with the sons of the reactionary aristocracy, just as Mme. Worms Clavelin, Anatole France's wife of the Jewish prefect, was delighted to visit her daughter in the convent of the Dames du Précieux Sang where she was having her brought up.

The first material result of this competition is, that the number of lycée pupils has diminished while that of the religious schools has gone on increasing. The statistics of the past year show 86,321 pupils for the lay colleges, as against 91,140 for the Catholic. Another consequence is, that a large number of the functionaries of the Republican state—magistrates, officers, etc.—are recruited from schools of which the spirit is implicitly if not violently hostile to every idea on which the Republic rests. French Radicals, in their morbid distrust of the Church, have always regretted the law of 1850, known as the Falloux law, that authorized the congregations to compete with State instruction. When it was under discussion, Victor Hugo attacked it with his customary emphasis, saying to the clerical party: "This is your law, and, to be frank, I do not trust you. To instruct is to construct, and I distrust what you construct."

This anti-clerical distrust ended in the bill introduced by the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry, and which, without suppressing liberty of instruction, takes certain precautions, not to be called liberal, against the competing schools. It is styled an "Act respecting the Recruitment of Functionaries," or "the Scholastic Probation," and decides that no one can become a functionary if his three last years of study were not pursued in a State lycée. It has already encountered lively opposition among many republicans, by no means clerical. Those who uphold it and inspired it, like M. Aulard, the well-known historian of the Revolution and professor in the University of Paris, assert its necessity for combating Catholic instruction, which deforms the mind, warps the character, and renders youth incapable of reasoning justly, pliant to external authority, unfitted to furnish good citizens of a free country. M. Aulard recently affirmed that, at the examinations for the baccalaureate, he always detected the Jesuit pupils by their parrot-like recitation of lessons learned by rote, and by their inability to display either personal judgment or intellectual independence.

Whatever opinion be held on this point, and granting that these criticisms are well founded, it does not seem as if the State had a right to attack individual liberty even in the slight degree in which this bill attacks it. For my part I regret that a mind so judicious and liberal as M. Waldeck-Rousseau's has made such a concession to the Radical party. Besides, the theory on which the bill is based is singularly risky and liable to many exceptions. The instruction received at school does not always constitute the principal element in the formation of character. Not every pupil graduated from the French State schools has become a Liberal. M. Drumont, for example, who has the soul of a monk of the League, was a pupil of the Lycée Charlemagne at Paris. On the other hand, not only have the ecclesiastical schools produced many republicans, but the most fanatical anti-clerics are pupils of the Jesuit and other congregations. Voltaire was educated by the Jesuits at the Lycée Louis-le-Grand, and, in spite of all his subsequent digressions, they cherished a certain pride in having had such a pupil. Gambetta, who invented the cry, "The enemy is clericalism," was a brilliant pupil of the little seminary at Cahors where he composed pious verse in Latin. A recent Radical Minister of Public Instruction, M. Combes, was formerly not only a seminary pupil but professor. M. Loubet himself was pupil in a small Catholic establishment in La Drôme. Twenty less-known personages might be cited who had derived from their clerical education only a savage anti-religious fanaticism. M. Urbain Gohier, the violent publicist, who wrote the other day for the *National Review* an exaggerated and unjust article against French Catholicism, was a pupil of the con-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

gregation of the Marists, who direct the Collège Stanislas at Paris.

Undeniably the two-fold education received by French youth creates two hostile currents, and excites between two halves of one people a sorry antagonism. But that is a natural result of French historical evolution, and no law can at one stroke extinguish it. For the rest, even if we could purchase the moral unity of the country in this manner, the cost would be too dear at the expense of freedom, which is a republic's excuse for being and its most precious possession. OTHON GUERLAC.

Correspondence.

A PERPLEXED REPUBLICAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The perplexities which I have at this time as to my political duty are doubtless the same that occur to many who wish to support that party which will do the least wrong when in power. I am a native of Kentucky, and was in the Union Army during the civil war. I was a Republican until Mr. Cleveland declared for a "tariff for revenue only"; then I voted with the Democrats. I was strongly repelled by Mr. Bryan's doctrines, and believed him a dangerous man, and his platform wrong from any point of view and revolutionary in its principles and tendencies. Hence, I voted for Mr. McKinley for President, and have since voted with the Republicans, although opposed to their tariff doctrines.

However, if they persist, as I believe they certainly will, in the policy of expansion and the disregard of what so many revere as the fundamental principles of freedom, what can we do? Mr. Bryan and his party are guilty of dangerous financial principles, yet they may possibly not be absolutely destructive of our government; but their doctrines as to law, courts, and constitutions are so fearful that we should not risk them under any conditions heretofore experienced. On the other side, Mr. McKinley and party have forgotten our country's most sacred traditions and history, and are seeking to establish precedents and adopt a foreign policy that will identify our Government's future action with that of Germany, Russia, and other monarchies, substituting as guiding principles pride as a world power, and faith in strong navies and large armies, in place of faith in natural justice and right, and so destroying all present hope of free institutions.

If there were a Democratic party such as was known prior to 1896, with a nominee on a platform in accordance with its principles, we could vote for him. But there is now no such party, and no proper place for many good and true men—as heretofore defined—to go. Must they, then, be forced to choose between McKinley partisans and Bryan partisans as we now know them? In such case, as for me, I cannot yet say with certainty what would be my decision, but I fear it is a much more portentous question to Mr. McKinley than his friends yet believe or realize. It will probably be decided by many in a way very dangerous to his hopes of success. Many who voted for him at the last election, and expected to do so again, now think Mr. Bryan the less of the two evils, and will support him. The problem is, How many are there of that mind? Are there enough to change the result? Judging from the condition of my mind, as an independent with Republican antecedents, I think there is a very grave danger here to Mr. McKinley's success, from which I can see no prospect that he will try to escape, and which may turn the scale against him at the election next year. JNO. H. WARD.

MICCOSUKIE, FLA., January 11, 1900.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on the Vice-Presidency, in your issue of November 9, is interesting. Likewise John Adams's sarcasm describing his office as the most insignificant "that ever the mind of man contrived or his imagination conceived," is amusing. There is, however, another view of the question, whether the Vice-Presidency is a superfluous office, which I do not remember having seen in print.

All thoughtful observers of our political history are one in thinking it of great importance to maintain the prestige of the United States Senate—in fact, to keep it at the highest attainable standard. The dignity of its presiding officer, and thereby of the Senate itself, is greatly enhanced by his being elected by the whole people, at the same time and in the same manner and for the same period as the President, and through his being his heir apparent. No one as yet has suggested so good a way of choosing this dignitary as that provided by the Constitution. Meanwhile, the danger in diminishing the halo which now undoubtedly does surround the head of the permanent President of the Senate, is perhaps as great as the danger of having an occasional mediocre President arising from the existing method of selecting him. This, of course, only makes it, if possible, the more important that the Vice-Presidency should be filled, as you very properly say, with a strict view to the possible succession.—Yours truly,

E. C. DU BOIS.

CHORRILLOS, PERU, December 29, 1899.

THE CENTURY ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While examining newspaper files in the Wisconsin State Historical Library yesterday, I found, in the *Connecticut Courant* for January 5, 1801, two and a half columns of verse entitled, "The Triumph of Democracy; A Poem. Addressed to the readers of the *Connecticut Courant*." At the end of it are a number of explanatory notes and the date, "Hartford, Jan. 1, 1801"; but nothing more to indicate the author. I find it again in the *New England Palladium*, duly accredited by the full title, but only one day later. Hence it must have been sent to Boston also before its publication by the *Courant*.

The vote for the President, just in from the critical State of South Carolina, has assured the election of Jefferson (or Burr). The poem fiercely derides the victors, and is an interesting Federalist lampoon. The introductory stanza, however, treats of a troublesome question of these days in so appropriate and satisfactory a way that it should be republished. It is as follows:

"PRECISELY twelve o'clock, last night,
The Eighteenth Century took its flight.
Full many a calculating head
Has rack'd its brains, its ink has shed,
To prove by metaphysics fine
A *Hundred* means but *Ninety-nine;*
While at their wisdom others wonder'd,
But took *one more* to make a hundred.
Thus, by an unexampled riddle,
The world's divided in the middle.
The Century, waking from its bed,
Finds half mankind a year a-head;
While t'other half, with lingering pace,
Have scarcely started in the race.
Strange! at "*the Eighteenth Century's close,*
When light in beams effulgent glows,'
When bright "*Illumination's*" ray
Has chas'd the Darkness far away,
Heads fill'd with mathematic lore
Dispute if *two and two make four.*
Go on, ye Scientific Sages,
Collect your light a few more ages;
Perhaps as swells the vast amount,
A century hence you'll *learn to count;*
Whilst we more usefully employ'd
Will traverse back the mighty void,
With keen, researching eye discern
Some lessons for the world to learn.
Nor will we venture far to stray,
Lest *in the Dark* we lose our way;
A single year, perchance, or so,
Is all the length we mean to go——
. . . . . .
A year, that nowhere does belong
Shall be the subject of our song."

Respectfully yours, F. G. FRANKLIN.

MADISON, WIS., 915 UNIVERSITY AVE., January 16, 1900.

THE STRENUOUSNESS OF SOUTHERN "DIFFICULTIES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The appalling tragedy at Frankfort last Tuesday was without political significance, the chief actors being of one party. Colston (ex-Congressman) and Lieut. Scott, formerly officers of the Third Kentucky Volunteers, quarrelled in camp at Anniston, Ala., over military and personal matters, and there engaged in a pistol duel. Of course, under the example of war, and in the spirit of that "strenuous life" of which your Governor is the chief apostle, the quarrel was pursued to its desperate conclusion. Kentucky bows her humiliated head, but asks, Is the spirit of that conflict hers alone? Is not fighting now advanced to be one of the noblest incidents of life? And, if so, have we not furnished a splendid spectacle for the approval of those who favor fighting to develop manhood, courage, and virtue? Let Gov. Roosevelt answer. ****

LOUISVILLE, KY., January 18, 1900.

Notes.

Mr. Edwin L. Godkin's Reminiscences, which recently appeared in the *Evening Post*, are to be elaborated for publication in book form by Macmillan Co., in the coming autumn.

The same firm has actually in press a translation of some twenty chapters by as many German officers on 'The Franco-German War,' with portraits and battle-maps, and 'Monopolies and Trusts,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely, the first volume of a series called "A Citizens' Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology."

The third volume of Lady Randolph Churchill's *Anglo-Saxon Review* (John Lane) will be ready for delivery early next month. It has been delayed by fire. Among the portraits are those of Bonaparte, the Shelleys, Paderewski, and Canning; among the contributors, one American at least, Stephen Crane.

A new and amended edition of Prof. A. Campbell Fraser's 'Life and Works of Bishop Berkeley,' originally issued in 1871,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

is now in preparation, and will probably be ready for publication by the Clarendon Press before the end of the present year; the 'Works' (including the posthumous writings first published in 1871) being now arranged in chronological order with additional material since discovered, and with the dissertations and annotations carefully revised and to a great extent rewritten. The life will be curtailed. Prof. Campbell Fraser will be glad to receive any fresh biographical or bibliographical information, or corrections of errors in his first edition, and communications may be addressed to him at the University Press, Oxford.

The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston, will shortly issue 'The Story of the Nineteenth Century [in round numbers],' by Elbridge S. Brooks.

A memoir of the late Charles Albert Berry, D.D., of Wolverhampton, England, by the Rev. James S. Drummond, is about to be brought out by Cassell & Co.

A. C. McClurg & Co. will soon issue a new volume of essays and addresses by Bishop Spalding.

From Macmillan Co. (London: A. & C. Black) we have the fifty-second issue of the annual biographical dictionary known as 'Who's Who,' for 1900, and the twentieth of 'The Englishwoman's Year-book and Directory' for 1900, edited by Emily Janes, Secretary to the National Union of Women Workers of Great Britain and Ireland—both works being in a series of new issues. Of 'Who's Who' it is needless to speak; its praise is reflected in the excellent imitation, 'Who's Who in America.' The fact that the present edition had to go to press early in November, accounts for the omission of the employment of British officers in South Africa; but we note that the late Gen. Symons is dropped. Attention should be called anew to the convenient preliminary lists and tables concerning the Royal Family, Parliament, the Government, the London School Board, the fleet, public schools, societies, etc. 'The Englishwoman's Year-book' is broadly occupied with furnishing all needful information about Education, Employments (a list suggestive outside of England); the Medical Profession, with a list of medical women; Science, with a record of woman's work in 1899; Literature, Fine Arts and Music, Sports, Clubs, etc. There are sections for Housekeeping, Travelling, and Thrift, for Public Work and Philanthropy. A list of charitable homes for women and children, and a first "directory of the names and addresses of women who are well known to the world and to workers," are still other features of this useful publication.

The Harpers proceed with 'Shirley' and 'Villette' in the "Haworth Edition" of the Brontë sisters. Mrs. Humphry Ward furnishes an introduction to each volume. Her praise of 'Shirley' is necessarily dimmed by her final remark that "it contains none the less the promise and potency of higher things than 'Jane Eyre'—of the brilliant, the imperishable 'Villette.'" Passing on to 'Villette' itself, we find Mrs. Ward certain that "it is the writer's masterpiece." This, in spite of the fact that it has never been so widely read as 'Jane Eyre,' and that the "majority of English readers prefer 'Shirley.'" The reason for the comparative neglect of 'Villette' Mrs. Ward discovers in the consideration that "the narrowness of the stage on which the action passes, the foreign setting, the very fulness of poetry, of visualizing force, that runs through it like a fiery stream, bathing and kindling all it touches down to the smallest detail, are repellent or tiring to the mind that has no energy of its own responsive to the energy of the writer."

All of Jane Austen in the pocket "Temple" output of first editions (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan)—the six works making ten volumes delightfully bound in olive leatherette, the whole encased in a neat box, at a moderate price—is something to tempt the booklover. Each dainty volume has a colored frontispiece illustration in the fashion of the beginning of the present century. There is no apparatus of any kind except what accompanied the original issue. The type is clear, the form most companionable.

The number of good State atlases of the United States is wofully small, corresponding to the backwardness of definitive surveys. That of New Jersey, prepared by its own Geological Survey, led in time and is still the best of its kind, and, as we lately reported, is undergoing revision. New York lacks the basis for a similar work, but what could be done with the materials at command, and by special surveys, was handsomely published five years ago by Julius Bien & Co. of this city. In the interval the same firm has undertaken an Atlas of Pennsylvania, on a smaller scale and therefore of somewhat handier size. Besides the several county maps with roads, "the names of all places," however insignificant, with indication of population, etc., there are fine folding maps (1) of the United States, reduced from that of the United States Geological Survey, showing every county and county-seat, and the entire railroad system of the country; and (2) a railroad and post-office map of Pennsylvania, on which, the railroads being delineated in red, it is curious to see to what an extent they hug the water-courses and in appearance form a fluvial system. There follows an economic and geologic map of formation and mineral resources, Harden's striking Centennial relief map of the State, rainfall and temperature map, and statistics in diagrams. Add to the foregoing a dozen maps of cities and a general index, and some idea will be had of this most welcome addition to works of reference for school, library, and office.

'Famous Actors of the Day,' by Lewis C. Strang (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), is a companion volume to 'Famous Actresses of the Day,' by the same author, of which due notice was taken a few weeks ago, and is of the same general description. It is pleasantly written, and contains a quantity of biographical information for persons interested in the personality of more or less well-known theatrical performers. The word "famous," of course, is rather grotesquely misapplied in a good many cases, and the critical estimates are often, as is common in publications of this kind, pretty reckless, although not much fault is to be found, in this respect, with the notices of such performers as Joseph Jefferson, John Drew, Richard Mansfield, and two or three others of assured position. The photographic illustrations are generally very good, and the book is attractive in print and appearance; but the typographical errors are altogether too frequent.

The Rev. S. P. H. Statham's 'History of the Castle, Town and Port of Dover' (Longmans) will do little to remove the discredit which attaches to local histories as a class. Externally it is substantial enough; and its compilation has doubtless involved a great deal of labor. But it includes a large amount of matter that is altogether unnecessary (take, for example, the account of the Druids); it contains an infinite number of details of no interest at all except to the genealogist; the author shows little power of grouping his facts and bringing out their significance; and the style throughout is dull, and often enough incorrect. Mr. Statham makes a great parade of his use of the rolls in the Record Office and of unprinted authorities in the British Museum, but he nowhere gives any exact reference, so that the volume can be of little service to serious students. There are abundant indications that it would be unsafe to rely on Mr. Statham's version of his authorities, as where the conflict with the Spanish ships in 1350 is converted into "a victory over the French in a battle named *Lespagnols sur Mer*"! Still, the book will look well on the tables of "the good folk" of Dover, and when they take it up on Sunday afternoon they will probably learn something from it.

As a contribution to the history of communistic experiments 'The Oneida Community,' by Allan Estlake (London: George Redway), has a certain value. The author, who was a member of this community, writes with evident sincerity; but his earnestness is not sufficient to overcome the disgust with which, in a monogamic society, reversions to polyandry will be regarded.

It is reported by German journals as more than probable that the third volume of Bismarck's 'Gedanken und Erinnerungen' will never be issued, as the sons of the Iron Chancellor have forbidden its publication. The house of Cotta, which contracted for the whole work, will go to law in the matter and sue for damages, as it has suffered considerable pecuniary loss by the suppression.

The Philippines is the subject of the opening article, by the Hon. John Barrett, in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for January. It contains nothing beyond the familiar statements of the importance of the position of Manila, the great natural resources of the islands, and the possibilities of trade with Asia. The only personal touch is the characterization of Aguinaldo. Of greater interest is Mr. F. C. Schrader's account of the Cape Nome gold district, which he visited last October. The beach diggings, from which it is estimated a million dollars were taken last season, have this advantage over those at the opposite extremity of America, at Cape Horn, in that they are above the high-tide level, but otherwise the conditions are very similar—the open sea without safe anchorage, a beach without shelter or fuel except driftwood, and a barren country behind. Yet Nome is a town of from three to five thousand inhabitants, with three newspapers. The beach gold is extracted by rocking, and, the supply of copper-plate having given out, in many instances "the bottom of the rocker was covered by United States silver coin, principally one-dollar pieces, and these coated with the mercury which caught the gold." The article is accompanied by an excellent map and some illustrations. Mr. R. U. Goode describes the methods employed by the Geological Survey for marking the boundary line between Idaho and Montana, and there are also notes descriptive of the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Copper River delta, upon the census of 1900, and the total eclipse of the sun.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number eleven, contains the conclusion of Gen. Krahmer's interesting account of the Province of Anadyr in the northeastern extremity of Siberia. He describes with some detail the methods of journeying between the settlements at the different seasons of the year, the traffic, the condition and manner of life of the Cossacks in the Government employ, and the general outlook for the future of the people, closing with a reference to the American whaling industry. After giving some statistics to show the value of the fish annually taken by our ships in Russian waters, he proposes as a remedy, since Russian war-ships could not be spared to patrol these coasts, that a monopoly of the fishing should be granted to a company furnished with the power to protect its rights. Some such measure he regards as essential, not merely to the well-being, but to the very existence, of some of the tribes.

Semitic epigraphical research has been so vigorously and successfully advanced of late years, and the mass of new materials, especially in the shape of inscriptions, has grown to such an extent, that an organ for the purpose of systematically utilizing these new finds has seemed necessary. Such an organ is now to be published by the house of J. Ricker, in Giessen, *Ephemeris für Semitische Epigraphik*, edited by Dr. Mark Lidzbarki. A leading purpose is to publish new inscriptions and foster special discussions and investigations. The size of the "hefts" will depend on the material requiring attention, and the annual volume is to cost about 15 marks.

According to the Berlin *Börsen-Courier*, the capital of Germany is the most "monumental" city in the world, boasting of no fewer than sixty-three such memorials. As soon as the Siegesallee is completed and other monuments now projected are a reality, the "Athens of the Spree" will be able to boast of at least one hundred. The *Rundschau* adds that this is a little too much of a good thing, as the why and wherefore of not a few of these monuments is not exactly apparent. It is noticeable that, in this centre of the greatest military state of the age, the number of civilians who have thus been honored exceeds the number of military men, there being only twenty-nine of the latter represented, as against thirty-four of the former.

The contents of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1897-98, of which volume i. has just been sent out, though naturally in the main informatory and statistical, are not lacking in stimulating matter. What citizen of Kansas, for instance, can fail to be aroused by the statement that there are "practically no requirements" for the practice of medicine in his State, when even of the doctor among the Creek Nation in the Indian Territory "a good moral character and payment of $25 is required"? Dr. Harris's criteria of civilization, in his introductory remarks on Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines (pp. xl, ff.), are interesting and to the point. "If we cannot come into contact with lower civilizations," he says among other things, "without bringing extermination to their people, we are still far from the goal. It must be our great object to improve our institutions until we can bring blessings to lower peoples and set them on a road to rapid progress." The chapter on Education in the Philippines (pp. 968-983) is not a masterpiece of composition, but we wish it might be read by every man and woman, young and old, in the country. It would be news to many that "all travellers state that there are schools in every village"; that "the instruction among the Indians [*i. e.*, the Tagals] was far from being backward when compared with that of the lower classes in Europe. Nearly all the Tagals can read and write. . . . The Indians play from memory the overtures of Rossini and Meyerbeer," etc. An article by the German ethnologist Blumentritt is quoted from and referred to as being given in the Report (p. 971), but other counsel must have prevailed and prevented its insertion, for it is not there. The article appeared in the *Rundschau* for July, 1898, and, together with another by the same scholar. "Völkerpsychologisches in der Philippinenfrage" (*Rundschau*, May, 1899), is well worth reading. Of several other important chapters in the Report we must mention at least that on Foreign Influence on Education in the U. S. (pp. 591-629). As to the condition of education in this country during the year covered by the Report (ending June 30, 1898), it is encouraging to notice progress and improvements along the whole line from the common school to the university.

A bill has just been introduced in the Senate, through the Senate committee on the District of Columbia, which provides for the conferring of degrees by the Smithsonian Institution. Provision is also made for the appointment of a board of five examiners, each examiner to receive a salary of four or five thousand dollars a year, and to devote his whole time to the duties of instruction and examination.

The Egyptian budget of Mr. J. L. Gorst, the financial adviser, bears striking testimony to the prosperity of the country even under the unfavorable circumstance of the lowest Nile flood ever recorded. The total loss from this failure of irrigation, mainly in Upper Egypt, is estimated at $4,000,000. On the other hand, the value of the cotton crop alone in 1899 exceeds that of 1898 by more than $17,000,000, thanks to a larger yield and higher prices. Significant also is the influx of foreign capital, which has amounted in the past ten years to $22,500,000, while the tourists are estimated to have expended in the same time $50,000,000 in round numbers.

An evidence of the present supremacy of the civil power over the military party in France—one of the few satisfactory results of the Dreyfus trial—is the reorganization of French West Africa. A part of the Sudan is to be attached to each of the four contiguous colonies, and the remainder is divided into two military districts, while the whole region is to be under the control of a Governor-General, with powers apparently similar to those of the Viceroy of India, with headquarters at St. Louis, the capital of Senegal. One effect of this measure will be the putting an end to those annual military expeditions, at times unauthorized by and leading to action directly contrary to the wishes of the Government of the day, which have again and again brought France and England to the brink of war. Another equally desirable effect will probably be that the energies and resources of the Government will be diverted from these purely military operations to the work of the peaceful development of the country.

We regret to record the death of Surgeon Charles A. Siegfried, U. S. N., which took place at Newport on January 14. Dr. Siegfried was an occasional correspondent of the *Nation* while on his cruises. His powers of general observation were excellent, and he possessed a very humane spirit. Bacteriology was his chosen field of research, and, in the language of Dr. Wolcott Gibbs, he was "a mine of information upon all subjects connected with sanitation and with the construction, care, and management of hospitals."

—The thirteenth volume (new series) of the Transactions of the Royal Historical Society (Longmans) is one of exceptional interest. It opens with a Presidential Address—"the eighth and last"—by Sir M. E. Grant Duff. He takes for his text the recent translation of the Abbé Dubois's book on Hindu manners, and shows how the subsequent history of British administration in India has but confirmed the wisdom of the Abbé's observations. For instance, it is no less true than it was in 1823 that whoever may be the nominal sovereign, his rule must in practice be largely Brahminical. At present, "Brahmins swarm in all our public offices, and rightly so. . . . At the same time they are a caste . . . and they hold together like a vast trades-union combined with a cousinhood." Then follows an elaborate treatise of some fifty-seven pages by Mr. C. H. Firth, who, of course, knows more about the Cromwellian period than any writer except Mr. Gardiner, on "The Raising of the Ironsides." Herein he describes in detail, with an elaborate citation of authorities, the constitution of the force, its arms and equipment, its pay and maintenance, and its medical and religious organization. He furnishes incidentally some fresh evidence of the incompatibility of Cromwell's position as the commander of a body of troops devoted to his person with the theory of government by Parliament. For, within a few weeks from the day when Cromwell assured the House of Commons that his soldiers "look not upon me but upon you," and "do not idolize me, but look upon the cause they fight for," the Ironsides refused, in the absence of their beloved commander, to carry out the most positive orders of the House.

—The next paper is also by a writer who has made the period of which it treats peculiarly his own; it is by Mr. James Gairdner, and is concerned with the fall of Cardinal Wolsey. His contention seems to be that Henry VIII. had a lingering regard for his great minister to the last, and that the Parliamentary manœuvres of Cromwell might have saved Wolsey from utter ruin if he had not first died from disease aggravated by fright. Mr. Gairdner parenthetically expresses his dissent from the current view that the development of the House of Commons was arrested under "the New Monarchy." In his view "it was the Tudors who first instructed them to snub the House of Lords and the Bishops in convocation. . . . For the House of Lords and the Church had been the chief controlling powers hitherto to prevent absolutism; and it was the Tudor policy to depress them both by setting up the House of Commons as a counterpoise to the one, and royal supremacy to overbear the other." The other papers in the volume deal with "Politics at the Council of Constance,"

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

by Mr. Figgis, one of the best-known of the younger generation of Cambridge historical tutors, pointing out the similarity of the Conciliar theory to the Whig doctrine of later centuries; a comparison between Pitt's action in 1783-4 and Peel's in 1834-5, by Mr. F. H. Hill; the "Origin and Early History of Double Monasteries," or monasteries for men and women, treated with wide learning by Miss Mary Bateson; and finally the "Alexander Prize Essay on the Relations of the Crown to Trade under James I.," by Miss Hermia Durham—a pupil, if internal evidence does not deceive us, of Dr. Cunningham. So creditable a publication as this volume encourages us to remind the university librarians of America that the Royal Historical Society is more than ever deserving of support since it has been amalgamated with the Camden. Indeed, Mr. Gardiner has arranged to edit so many volumes of hitherto unprinted material for the Society that its publications will soon be indispensable to all students of English history in the seventeenth century.

—In 'Oxyrhynchus Papyri, Part II.,' published by the Græco-Roman branch of the Egypt Exploration Fund, the editors, Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt, present one hundred and ninety-three Greek texts, all of the first century B. C., or first century A. D., with the exception of some theological and classical fragments, a number of medical prescriptions for affections of the ear, and the long petition of Dionysia, which are of the second, third, and fourth centuries A. D. The theological texts include St. John's Gospel, chapters i. and xx., and Paul's Epistle to the Romans, chapter i. Among the new classical fragments are some of great interest, *e. g.*, fifty-one lines of a lost comedy by Menander, "The Shorn Lady." The scene here presented is evidently near the close of the comedy, and helps to a fair reconstruction of the plot. One large fragment contains scholia on the twenty-first book of the 'Iliad.' Another gives a list of Olympian victors for the years B. C. 480-468, and 456-448. This is of great value, as it affords a means of determining the date of various odes of Pindar and Bacchylides. The most extended of the fragments of extant classical authors is a copy of a large portion of the fifth book of the 'Iliad,' of the third century A. D. Of miscellaneous fragments, the most important is the "Petition of Dionysia to the Prefect." It has to do with a dispute between Dionysia and her father, both on money matters and on the right of the latter to separate his daughter from her husband. So, both from the historical and legal point of view, it is a valuable document for this period (186 A. D.). The remaining numbers, 238-300, are first-century documents, among them several letters. They deal with various business matters, court affairs, marriages, divorces, deaths, taxes, etc. The value of such material is evident. Besides these fragments, which are given in full with notes, a hundred papyri are merely described. Perfect indices and eight facsimile plates increase the value and usefulness of the volume.

—Among other things the bicycle is doing is to produce a crop of gossipy guidebooks; and the invention of cheap methods of reproducing drawings enables the publishers to illustrate them lavishly at comparatively small cost. Among the best of its kind (so far as the text is concerned) is 'Highways and Byways in Yorkshire,' by Arthur H. Norway (The Macmillan Co.). The author has an eye for the picturesque; he has evidently got up the local history and folklore; and he carries his readers along with a breezy, not to say breathless, enthusiasm which young ladies will find contagious. The book deserves to be a success, though it is just a little too big and a little too daintily bound to be carried about on the wheel. And as Mr. Norway will doubtless go on to describe 'Highways and Byways' in some other counties, he may be the better for a word or so of caution. "Word-painting" is always in danger of becoming verbiage, and mediævalism-for-the-multitude is tempted to resort to Wardour Street. Mr. Norway has not altogether escaped these risks. It may be added that the note of ingenuous simplicity may be a little forced. "It is with the heart of a child that I have gone round Yorkshire, catching at whatever pleased my idle fancy; and now it is with the lips of a child that I find myself repeating," etc.—this is all very sweet and pretty, but it is apt to pall. As for the illlustrations, the reader who sees on the cover that they are by Joseph Pennell and Hugh Thomson, must prepare to be disappointed. They are so badly reproduced that their scratchy outlines can give no pleasure, and some of the plates—like the "Return from the Hawking,"—conceived of in a G. P. R. James vein—are simply ridiculous.

—Mr. C. W. Oman's 'England in the Nineteenth Century' (Longmans) is a *compte rendu* of the past hundred years which contains 260 pages, besides several useful appendices and an index. It is a serviceable manual as it stands, but might have been made better by the exercise of a little more care in the choice of language. A book of this sort need not be colorless, but it should avoid taking a partisan stand upon matters which are notoriously subjects of debate. Mr. Oman is not fair in his attitude towards the French Revolution or towards Napoleon, his references to the Continental rivals of England at the present time are in questionable taste, and, generally speaking, his tone is too condemnatory in passages where he deals with those who differed or differ from his own view. For instance, the following comment on the Fashoda episode suggests the animus of a newspaper editorial rather than the calm of an historical treatise: "We were, in fact, on the brink of a war with France, for her intolerable 'policy of pin-pricks,' pursued for the last ten years, had rendered any further yielding impossible. Fortunately, the French Government faltered and made submission; it was not ready to fight when its internal politics were confused with the wretched Dreyfus case, and when its ally, the Czar, refused any prospect of help." It would have been quite possible to give all the essential facts of the case without introducing the note of dislike which marks the sentences just quoted. In point of accuracy Mr. Oman is better than in point of style. We have observed nothing seriously amiss in his account of English domestic politics, though when he comes to imperial expansion and colonial self-government he is not quite impeccable. He should not say that the lower branch of the Dominion Parliament is a "House of Representatives." He is also at fault in his enumeration of Canadian provinces in the Northwest. "Since it [the Canadian Pacific Railway] was finished, the development of Manitoba and the other regions of the Great Lone Land has been very rapid. Nine new provinces now exist in this once uninhabited region, with a rapidly growing population of over 300,000 souls." Mr. Oman's treatment of economic history is the most distinctive thing among the good features of his book. He establishes the connection between industry and politics, both by frequent passages in the text and by placing among the appendices a table of six selected budgets; those, namely, for 1801-'02, 1810, 1820, 1846, 1855, and 1898. The introduction also contains several paragraphs which are devoted to the transformation of English life by the industrial revolution. If a certain amount of allowance is made for the degree of Mr. Oman's patriotism, and especially for his estrangement from France, the reader will find much that is admirable in his sketch of English political history since the Peace of Amiens.

EATON ON THE GOVERNMENT OF MUNICIPALITIES.

The Government of Municipalities. By Dorman B. Eaton. Macmillan Co. 1899.

No man in New York, perhaps no man in the United States, had better earned the right to be heard on municipal questions than the late Dorman B. Eaton had done. For many years he had been a persistent and unwearied advocate of civil-service reform in the national and State governments as well as in cities, and had labored with unselfish zeal for the improvement and purification of city government in New York. We regret that our notice of this volume, in which he sets forth his view with much fulness and care, and which deserves the attentive study of those who feel how little progress American cities have yet made towards the ideal which all good citizens agree in placing before their eyes, should have been necessarily delayed till after his death.

Mr. Eaton begins by noting the fact that municipal administration is the weakest point in the conduct of our public affairs. He does not need to prove the fact. Every reasonable man, from Portland to San Francisco, admits it. He next asks why municipal administration is so bad when national administration and State administration are so good. If we are satisfied with the Federal Constitution and the State constitutions, why, he asks, are we so dissatisfied with the charters of the great cities, and why are constant attempts made to improve them? He concludes that there must be special causes at work to deprave city governments which are absent from the wider spheres of the nation and the State; and he proceeds to indicate these causes, finding the chief among them in the control which national parties have established over the politics of the cities—a control which has enabled party organizations (themselves, perhaps, caring very little about national political issues) to dominate cities, and to use municipal governments for sordid and purely selfish purposes. He observes with truth that all the evils of American city government have grown up within the lifetime of living men, and notes that it was not till 1821 that the New York State Constitution contained any provisions relating to municipal affairs. Party organization seized upon the cities before it had been

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

realized what a dangerous field for its working the population of great cities supplied. And it may be added, though Mr. Eaton does not lay much stress upon the fact, that the large and rapid immigration from Europe, which accompanied and partly caused the swift growth of American cities, made evils which might anyhow have been looked for develop with unexpected rapidity.

Agreeing with our author in thinking that city government is the least satisfactory part of our system of government, and that its faults are chiefly due to the power of party organizations, we must point out that these faults are, after all, only the most striking instance of the weak point of modern democracy in the United States, viz., the tendency to let government fall into the hands of those who have selfish motives for getting hold of it, and to make its administration a means of private gain. This tendency is surely more powerful and more pernicious in the national Government and in the State governments than Mr. Eaton seems to recognize. But it is doubtless more palpably widespread and harmful in municipal governments, because the questions with which mayors and city councils have to deal are less interesting to most men of ability than are the questions which come before Congress, and because the field for ambition is less attractive, while on the other hand the opportunities for illicit gain are quite as great—probably even greater—in cities than they are in State or national legislatures.

This, however, is a digression, from which we must return to the remedies suggested by our author for the faults of city government. He first examines and dismisses two remedies on which some reformers have insisted. One is the grant of autocratic power to the Mayor. Differing from President Low, he disapproves of this arrangement, and holds it to be the offspring of party expediency, and calculated to play into the hands of party selfishness. He then discusses the view that what cities need is entire emancipation from State interference, or, as he terms it, complete home rule. This he considers to be wholesome only when the population of the city is sure to make a good use of its freedom—a condition which often fails to be realized. Thus, while blaming the frequent changes in our city charters—*and particularly in that of New York*, which has been tinkered with (according to Mr. Conkling) 390 times in the ten years between 1880 and 1890—he holds that some power of interference ought to be preserved to the State for supervising or correcting the errors of municipal authorities; and he cites the instances of State Boards of Charities, State Boards of Health, State Civil-Service Commissions, State powers of inspection, as instances of the good which such interference may effect.

These two remedies being accordingly pronounced inadequate, Mr. Eaton proceeds to propound his own scheme of reform. The chief plank in it is the removal of the party element from city government—a change the need for which he illustrates copiously from the career of Tammany Hall. Most of our readers will agree that this removal is desirable, but will ask how in the world it is to be accomplished. Mr. Eaton answers: By civil-service reform, *i. e.*, by making promotions for merit only, by forbidding arbitrary dismissals from party motives, by lengthening terms of official service, and also by reducing the number of elections and of elective offices. A further expedient which he advocates is a change in the mode of voting. The present election districts in cities seem to him too small. He would amalgamate them so as to form larger areas in each of which several persons should be elected; and he would have these elected on the system which has been usually called proportional representation, but which he prefers to describe as Free Voting. This scheme exists in the State of Illinois under the form of the so-called Cumulative Vote. In each Assembly district three representatives are elected, and a voter may distribute his three votes among the candidates as he pleases, giving one to each, or two to one and the third to another, or all three votes to the same candidate. The same plan has been at work in Great Britain in school-board elections since those bodies were established by the act of 1870. Mr. Eaton quotes British experience as being strongly in favor of the plan, but surely without sufficient ground. This mode of election has excited constant complaints both in England and in Scotland, on the ground that it gives too much power to small but compact sections. Attempts have often been made to get rid of it, and though the party in England which favors denominational schools has so far succeeded in preventing those attempts from being carried through Parliament, it would seem that the general opinion of educationalists condemns the system, and that it will probably be abolished and the method of voting which prevails in all other elections will be extended to school boards also.

In his next proposal Mr. Eaton again appeals, and here with better grounds, to European experience. He thinks that a Mayor should be elected, not by the city voters, but by the Council, and that, so far from being autocratic, the chief power should be taken from him and vested in the Council, as it is in the municipalities of all European countries. He admits that the Councils, as they now exist in our cities, would not be good bodies either to choose a Mayor or to administer a city, but conceives that the better method of election which he suggests would so greatly improve their composition that their functions might safely be intrusted to them. This method is as follows: The model Council would be elected upon the principle of free nominations and free voting in areas larger than the present districts. The city would be divided into four districts, in each of which nine aldermen would be elected by the cumulative vote, while ten others would be elected (also by cumulative vote) from the whole city. These forty-six would then add to their own number ten others, chosen from the whole city in respect of their fitness to aid in administration. These fifty-six, forming the whole Council, may further elect, if they like, other honorary aldermen, being ex-officials, who shall be entitled to speak, but not to vote. The district aldermen are to be elected for six years, one-third going out of office each year; the ten city aldermen for two years, one-half going out each year, so that the Council, like the national Senate, would be a continuing body. We give this scheme in full, because it is perhaps the most novel part of Mr. Eaton's proposals, and raises some points of interest. That it is not likely to be carried out, our State legislatures and the opinion of practical politicians being what they are, goes without saying; nor does the experience of England seem to us conclusive, for English conditions and traditions are very different from our own. Apart, however, from these difficulties, we feel far less sanguine than the author is that any changes of machinery will bring about the improvements he desires. Party organizations have shown themselves able to lay hold on and use for their purposes any and every form of municipal constitution that has hitherto been invented. Councils, uni-cameral and bi-cameral alike, mayors—mayors limited and mayors autocratic—have both become their tools.

It is possible that the experiments Mr. Eaton advocates may be worth trying. But with the record of failures behind us, we cannot feel confident that any reform which changes in the mode of election or the transfer of functions from one authority to another may effect, will really go to the root of the evil. That root seems to lie in two facts. One is the indifference of all classes in our cities (the well-to-do not less than the poor) to good administration, as compared with their adherence to party names and party leaders. The other fact is the existence of a vast multitude of voters who do not realize that they have any interest in good administration, and who, owing to their ignorance, are not really qualified for the suffrage. Most people assume this latter fact to be the chief source of mischief. If we were to look only at New York and Chicago, we might think so. But the case of Philadelphia proves that the former is the more deep-seated cause; and it needs a complete change in the thoughts and habits of the people to remove it. However, our less sanguine estimate of the gain to be expected from changes in machinery does not prevent us from recognizing the value of the facts Mr. Eaton has so well collected, and of the opinions he has so judiciously expressed. His chapters on School and Sanitary Administration, on Police Administration, on Judicial Administration, are full of suggestions which well deserve the consideration of practical reformers. The concluding chapter, on the new charter of the Greater New York, would need a review all to itself in order that its criticisms, many of them being verified by painful experience, should be duly examined.

MUIRHEAD'S PRIVATE LAW OF ROME.

Historical Introduction to the Private Law of Rome. By the late James Muirhead, LL.D. Second edition, revised and edited by Henry Goudy, LL.D. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

This well-known work first appeared in an abridged form in the pages of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' It was published complete as a book in 1886. Its author, who for several years had been professor of Civil Law in the University of Edinburgh, and who had already given proof of his ability, in 1880, by an excellent edition of Gaius and Ulpian, rose at once, by virtue of his modestly named "Historical Introduction," to the front rank of writers on Roman law. Three years later the book was translated into French—an honor which has been granted to a few only of the most distinguished civilians, such as Ihering and Mommsen. It has also appeared in an

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Italian translation. Unfortunately, the author has not lived to revise and expand his work, so as to incorporate in it the results of criticism and of recent research. The present editor has wisely refrained from changing in any way the text of 1886, but has given us a reprint, with valuable additions in the shape of notes and appendices.

Before touching upon these we feel bound to notice one striking fact. On its own subject this "Historical Introduction" has no rival in the English language. That the second edition of a book so unique should not appear till thirteen years after the first edition is certainly a remarkable illustration of how little Roman law is studied in England and in the United States. Owing to her peculiar institutions, Scotland has always fostered the study of the civil law, but in England it has not been successfully revived, except in the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and London. The statement made in 1879 by Frederic Harrison, that "an effective knowledge of Roman law has been introduced into the ordinary education of every lawyer" *(Fortnightly Review*, January, 1879) is not much truer now than it was then. Solicitors are not expected to possess that knowledge, and, though the examination for admission to the English bar does profess to require it, we know of a barrister who recently passed on the strength of a week's study of Hunter's 'Introduction to Roman Law,' so that even in his own land Sir Henry Maine's preaching has not yet borne adequate fruit. England has, indeed, produced in recent years a few able writers, among whom Poste, Hunter, Roby, Moyle, Clark, Amos, and Muirhead are the best known, but our own country cannot boast of a single well-known laborer in this important field of learning. The neglect of Roman law in our universities, and its entire omission from the curriculum of most of our great law schools, is perfectly notorious. Nay, more, the neglect is deliberate and the omission intentional—a manifestation of learned opinion which we do not, however, propose to criticise here.

This book is, therefore, not likely to have a brilliant career as a text-book for American students, though it is eminently fitted for their use. But among that large and increasing class of our lawyers to whom case law may be daily bread, and who yet prefer not to live by bread alone, we think that this book will prove popular, partly on account of its elegance—to borrow an untranslatable term from the Roman jurists—partly because of the facility with which it handles an intricate subject, and partly on account of the clearness with which it distils into 400 pages the essence of a vast mass of German, French, and Italian research. To readers of the class above mentioned, we have no hesitation in commending it, and we should advise them to obtain from this source a general view of the infancy and growth of the Roman law before they plunge into such formidable treatises as those of Hunter or Salkowski (Whitfield's translation), which depict that law at its maturity.

The mention of modern research suggests one serious difficulty with which all histories of this subject have to contend, and which readers of this book must be prepared to face, namely, the bewildering conflict among scholars and commentators. Whoever bears in mind the nature of the subject will scarcely be surprised that differences of opinion should exist. The earliest student of Roman legal antiquities whose works have come down to us is M. Terentius Varro, who died in the year B. C. 116, and even to him the early law was not an open secret. Several centuries later Gaius himself, when describing historical changes, occasionally hints at strife among the learned by some such remark as "valde quaeritur." If these men came upon difficult problems, surely we need expect no easier path. Since their day the sources have become scantier and more corrupt, and even the mighty Twelve Tables have been reduced to fragments, as if by the ruthless hand of some mediæval Moses. We cannot positively say whether the Lex Aebutia, so important in the history of Roman procedure, was enacted before or after the time of Cicero. The precise distinction between *res mancipi* and *res nec mancipi* will probably always remain uncertain. Instances of this sort might be indefinitely multiplied. Indeed, no history of Roman law can ever be written concerning which the critics cannot, if they please, point out weaknesses in dozens of more or less vital spots. Nevertheless, these spots are unimportant as compared with the solid bulk of fact which modern discovery has laid bare. What we may fairly demand of our historical guide, under such circumstances, is that he shall lead us over the whole field with a firm hand and a clear head, and that he shall frankly warn us when we are treading on insecure ground. That demand has been amply fulfilled in the present volume.

The author has divided his subject into five parts: i., the Regal Period; ii., the *Jus Civile*, covering the Twelve Tables and the law of the Republic down to the Punic wars; iii., the *Jus Gentium* and *Jus Honorarium*, covering the latter half of the Republic; iv., the *Jus Naturale* and the maturity of Roman jurisprudence, covering the Empire down to the time of Diocletian; and v., the Period of Codification, from Diocletian to Justinian. Some historical writers prefer to classify the various branches of the law, and to give a separate history of each branch from the earliest to the latest times. But in our opinion the method here adopted of division into periods renders the treatment of the subject far more interesting, and is worth the price paid for it, to wit, a certain amount of unavoidable repetition. The system of division adopted by Prof. Muirhead is as good as any that we have seen. Perhaps the titles of his periods might mislead the uninitiated, by their suggestion that there was no *Jus Civile* in the latter half of the Republic, or that there was no *Jus Honorarium* under the Empire; but a slight perusal of the contents would soon correct any such mistake, and would explain the broad sense in which these titles have been used. In each part there are three or four long chapters, and several sections in each chapter. The titles of the chapters and the sub-titles of the sections indicate clearly the scope and arrangement of the topics discussed, while the flow of the narrative is not broken, nor the reader's eye distracted, as is so often the case in modern treatises, by that elaborate subdivision into paragraphs and subparagraphs, each with its own numbering or lettering, which is apparently considered so lucid and so helpful.

In short, the style of our author and his methods of exposition leave nothing to be desired. The one serious fault we have to find with him and his learned editor relates not to what they have put in the book, but to what they have left out. It must, of course, be admitted that a work of this size, professing to contain only an introduction to the subject, cannot be expected to instruct us upon every point. The sense of historic perspective must be exercised, and some topics must receive a cursory treatment in order that others of greater importance may be more fully discussed. But even when due allowance is made for this fact, there remain a good many gaps which ought in our opinion to have been filled. The editor has made numerous corrections and additions of more or less consequence. Our sole complaint is that these additions are not more plentiful, for, though the text has wisely been left intact, the footnotes and appendices might easily have supplied what is lacking. For instance, in a note on page 251 the editor has corrected the inaccurate impression conveyed by the text that *pignus* always applied to movables only. We see no reason why, on the very next page, a similar note should not have been placed, supplementing the brief statement of the text as to the curious and interesting growth of *hypotheca*. The nature of the *interdictum Salvianum* might thus have been briefly explained. A student who should find some mention of this interdict and turn to this book for information, would now obtain no light on the subject.

But the chief poverty of the first edition, which the new notes have failed fully to remedy, is that relating to the development of the law of contract. Too little space in the original text was allotted to this important topic, as compared, for instance, with the space devoted to the law of procedure; and the omission could have been rectified by the present editor without greatly increasing the size of the volume. Agency in acquisition, in litigation, and in the making of contracts, a subject of the greatest interest, has been more than insufficiently dealt with. Not only are such obscure contractual relations as those of the *vas* and the *praes* noticed with the barest mention, and without adequate reference to their literature, but even such comparatively modern topics as the growth of *mandatum*, of *locatio*, of *societas*, and the important effects of the *actiones praescriptis verbis* are passed over in almost total silence. The Roman law of corporations, which presents an interesting field of research, has likewise been left untouched. In a word, we have nothing but praise for the editor's notes, so far as they go; but we regret that they do not go further.

In point of textual accuracy this edition is an improvement on the former one, which is saying a great deal. Thus, the incorrect citation of Gaius iii., 46, in a note on page 270 of the first edition, is now given as it should be, namely, Gaius iv., 36. One sensible change in the text—and almost the only change—which the editor has seen fit to make, is in the phrase "to condescend upon"—a term borrowed from Scots law, which appeared on pages 103 and 234 of the first edition. Instead, we now find the more intelligible English equivalents "to specify" and "to state." Besides the new footnotes and several valuable appendices, Prof. Goudy has added a complete collection of the fragments of the XII Tables which will prove most useful for reference. He has also

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

improved the index, though it might well have been improved still further. Finally, in everything which concerns outward appearance the book could not possibly be better than it is. It presents in this respect a great contrast to similar works of French or German origin, as to almost all of which it may truthfully be said that their bodily presence is weak and their type and paper contemptible.

Holly and Pizen, and Other Stories. By Ruth McEnery Stuart. The Century Co.

San Isidro. By Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Valda Hânem: The Romance of a Turkish Hârîm. By Daisy Hugh Pryce. Macmillan.

Mrs. Stuart has a keen scent for the unusual, whether in things pathetic or things humorous, that rarely fails her in her choice of a subject. When it comes to the treatment, we have sometimes been reminded of Robert Collyer on the oysterplant which, as likened by him to the ineffective endeavorer, seems always to be upon the point of tasting like an oyster, yet never quite does. Uncle 'Riah Washington, absorbing the maladies of his neighbors in order to cure them, and incidentally to receive the good things remedial for them, could not be surpassed as a subject. Nor the Queen o' Sheba, foiled in the passion for magnificence in life, glorying in an expensive funeral, and, by favoring conditions, permitted to assist in the flesh. Nor Uncle Still, silent as an oracle and as ambiguous when moved to speech. Nor Miss Melissa, knitting green mats all her life, and suddenly impelled to change to scarlet and to go fishing on Sunday. Yet Uncle 'Riah falls short of his due effect from being over-dwelt on; the Queen o' Sheba's "pintedness" degenerates into the merely unpleasant as she approaches her timely taking off; Uncle Still's riddle is guessed so long before the climax that the sketch pays the penalty of a collapsing frame; Miss Melissa's innocent wild oatmeal has a made-up flavor as the banquet proceeds. The remaining story, "Picayune," shows, perhaps, more clever treatment than any in the volume, yet herein the subject (that of a bow-legged negro child in a Bowery freak museum) is the one least satisfactory to the sense of the picturesque. One could wish that the stories were better or worse—either really oysters or else plain squash.

A West Indian story is 'San Isidro,' prettily told and nicely observant of the relative values of landscape and figure. Across the mind occasionally darts the suspicion that one is undergoing guide-book instruction, as when one reads that the pilotojos, escaleras, ligazones, verandas, and techos were all of fire-red mahogany, that Isidro is pronounced *E-see-dro,* that the roof was thatched with yagua, and that the cattle browsed in the potrero, and that Don Beltran leaned against the chimenea which was between the casa and cocina, and that the gri-gris are hacked down to make way for banana-culture, and that banana bulbs must be planted twelve feet apart, ten inches deep, and (on windy hillsides) head downwards, and that the machete must be thrust into a post at the door when the owner enters. Still, a little knowledge, more or less, of Spanish-American language and manners is likely to attack us at any moment, and we must be brave. The story, for the rest, is full of an unusual grace, and of the picturesqueness that cannot be found elsewhere than on a tropical island; full, too, of the pathos and the tragedy that always attach to the dark drop in the human veins, and of a fierce Spanish spirit against which abduction and underground smuggling tunnels twinkle as naturally as jewels in an Ethiop's ear.

The title of 'Valda Hânem' calls up the picture of a captive beauty, playing the guitar to the listless ear of a black-bearded tyrant, who wears a fez and also a frown to match the scimitar which he fingers absently. A shadowy lover, in the background, suggests a rescue and tragedy galore. This Valda is a captive, in a sense; and her lord is a Turk of high degree, and wears a fez—sometimes. They live in a palace and have hordes of slaves. Their marriage was one of *convenance,* and neither ever saw the other before the raising of the bridal veil. There is, too, a lover, though he is not at all shadowy, and struts, oiled and curled, in the uniform of a British officer. There is even an attempt at a rescue and tragedy, of a sort. But though we have here all the elements of the suggested picture, it is a great shock to our sentimental preconceptions to find that Valda's chains are only the invisible ones of custom and convention, and that her husband is an up-to-date, well-read, and cultivated man of the world, devoted to his one wife; he even spends a part of every evening with her, and tells her all about the receptions that he attends and the foreign ladies that he meets. Their ways fill him with pleased wonder, though the veil, for his own womankind, with all that it involves, is as indispensable as ever. The book interests the reader as a series of pictures rather than as a story. The pictures are true to life in the universal; they also represent truly the present-day social and domestic life of the more conservative Turks of the higher classes. Miss (?) Pryce has evidently had excellent opportunities for observation, and she has used them well. She renders accurately what she has herself seen, but her explanations of Muslim law and custom cannot be depended upon so absolutely. She has succeeded best of all in the atmosphere of her story. Her Turks and Egyptians—slaves, children, mothers-in-law, and poor relations—are wonderfully genuine; and her book can be emphatically commended as a study in racial sociology.

The Cathedral Builders: The Story of a Great Masonic Guild. By Leader Scott. With Illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

The most important work on the subject treated in this volume is that of the late Prof. Giuseppe Merzario, 'I Maestri Comacini,' published in Milan in the year 1893. The author of 'Cathedral Builders' (Mrs. Baxter) acknowledges her indebtedness to Signor Merzario, but states that she has collated many other authorities, including documents in various public archives. By the aid of such materials she has tried to make a chronological arrangement, and a list of the names of the masters at different eras.

She begins by discussing the various theories concerning the origin of masonic guilds, and finds that the first mention of them occurs in a document dating from the year 643. This document is a code of rules relating to the duties and responsibilities of builders. It appears to show that, as early as the seventh century, an organized body of architects and builders was in existence. Whether this was a survival of the older Roman organizations, we have no means of knowing. Mrs. Baxter infers that architects of the same guild worked in Rome in the early Christian ages; and that, during the disasters which overtook the city, the brotherhood fled to Como, where, at a later period, they were employed by the Lombard rulers; and that they finally became a powerful guild, and were known as the Comacini Masters. They were absolved from the observance of local laws and royal edicts, were exempt from military service, and from many other obligations which were imposed upon the people of the country. They had the power of fixing their own fees, and the right of regulating in their own lodges everything that pertained to their own government; and, by the terms of the diplomas and bulls which were issued in their favor, other artists and workmen were prohibited from entering into competition with them. Thus privileged and protected, their numbers grew, and many bands of them were sent with missionaries into distant countries, where their membership was further augmented, and Frenchmen, Germans, Belgians, and Englishmen were admitted into their body. Every lodge had three divisions—one for the novices, one for the working brethren, and one for the masters. Thus banded together for mutual aid and advancement in their art, they communicated to each other, from distant localities, such knowledge and experience as they gained in all branches of architectural design and methods of work.

We cannot follow our author through the tangled maze of history, tradition, and conjecture through which she seeks to support her main proposition, that this Comacini brotherhood, with its numerous ramifications, produced, almost exclusively, the architecture of the whole of Western Europe from the Early Middle Ages to the period of the Renaissance; nor can we accept such a proposition as true. The arguments adduced to establish this view are based on incorrect premises. It is affirmed, for instance (p. 3), that this architecture is everywhere of the same character at a given epoch. But any discriminating comparison of the monuments will show that this is not the case. Many diverse influences are manifest at all times, to say nothing of the minor varieties of Romanesque which were produced during the eleventh century, when Romanesque art was most exclusively practised. There were at that time at least two leading types of architecture differing radically one from the other—namely, the basilical Romanesque and the organic Romanesque. Churches like the Cathedral of Pisa, and many others in which the leading forms and structural principles are those of the primitive Christian basilica, with its timber roofs, its continuous arcades, and its unbuttressed walls, are certainly not similar to churches like San Ambrogio of Milan, with its vaulted nave, its compound piers, and its generally organic system. It is impossible that such wholly different forms of art should have been produced by one body of builders working on the same general principles, and inspired by the same traditions. And, even apart from such types as these, it would be easy to show that there never was anything like what the author

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

calls Comacine architecture as a style bearing the marks of a single school of builders, and common to all parts of Europe. The monuments stand as witnesses to the fallacy of any such theory.

The parts of this book that treat of the great corporation which the author supposes to have had so large a share in the architectural activities of the Middle Ages, might have value if the statements which she makes were based on unquestioned facts. But many of her statements lack due evidence, and her knowledge of mediæval history is imperfect. Taken altogether, her work is a mass of confusion. Its only real value consists in the interesting plates with which it is adorned.

The Expansion of Egypt under Anglo-Egyptian Condominium. By Arthur Silva White, Hon. Fellow (formerly Secretary and Editor) of the Royal Scottish Geographical Society; Hon. Corresponding Member of the Société Africaine de France. London: Methuen & Co. 1899. Pp. xvi+484.

On the front cover of this book is stamped a quotation from the Qur'ân in the original, beautifully written in an ornamental hand. Translated, it would run, "And everything We have reckoned in a clear record"; but Mr. White nowhere gives any clue to the meaning of what, for the most of his readers, must be simply a bit of effective decoration. This is a pity, for it exactly describes his book, even to a certain cocksureness corresponding, with reverence, to the divine "We." Everything about the Egypt of the present is reckoned here, and the record of it is clear. Mr. Penfield's book, which we noticed recently, was similar in a way. It, too, was about present-day Egypt, and had no lack of clarity and insight. But the touch was light, and details were skipped; it was a holiday book for a holidaying public. Mr. White's book is for study, and careful study. It is swollen with details and bristles with statistics, mercifully arranged, for the most part, in careful tables. The touch is light enough, but it is also firm; the weight of facts is carried easily and even gracefully. Mr. White has mastered the art of the bookmaker.

There go three elements to the making of this record. First, Mr. White has his theory —a theory well sponsored—that Egypt is to be regarded as an island, and must fall to that power which has command of the sea. So he traces the history of the country from point to point, and, of course, abundantly finds his dogma there. Buttressed with Capt. Mahan, his case will certainly bear stating. One weak point, however, is Syria. Egypt and Syria have always historically gone together. He recognizes that, and would rather have Syria German than French. The possibility of that arrangement and its ultimate advantages may be doubtful. So far, history; but the second element in order is the future of Egypt, and Mr. White has no more doubt as a prophet than he had as an historian. In or before 1905, England must proclaim a protectorate over the whole valley of the Nile. That follows of necessity from the situation. What, then, is that situation? The answer is the third element—a plain and full description of things as they are in and around Egypt. This description can hardly be praised too highly. We may think as we please of the theory of the sea power and of the destiny of England in the valley of the Nile, but no one can question the wonderful fulness and clearness of this account of Egypt and of the work of England in Egypt. The physical factors are here—practically the Nile, for the land is the gift of the river, and everything depends upon irrigation. Nubar Pasha is reported to have said that Egypt needed two things, justice and water. The political situation, too, in all its bewildering ramifications: the Sultan's suzerainty, firmans, capitulations, *Caisse de la Dette*, international control and English control, a Walpurgisnacht of ghosts and realities. The population, too, and its characteristics according to the census of 1897; how that population is governed and how it governs itself; how it is educated, taxed, judged; how it buys and sells and smuggles—all this with tables galore. The Suez Canal at length, with its dreary history of squabbles and cheating, and its present as an international crux; then the situation in the Sudan, the native races, the loss, the reconquest, the Condominium—almost as beatific a word as Mesopotamia. Finally, what is aptly called "The Title-deeds of the Nile Valley"—a lucid *précis*, based on Hertslet's 'Africa by Treaty,' of the documents and rights involved. This is brought down to the latest agreement with France in March of the present year, which is given in full.

It will be seen that we have here the necessary continuation and supplement to Milner's 'England in Egypt,' and Wingate's 'Mahdiism.' Of special points of interest, the book is full: the damming of the Nile, and the character of the present Khedive; educational institutions in Egypt, and missionary enterprise; the Gordon Memorial College at Khartum, and the Abyssinian difficulty; Tripoli and its relation to the Senussi dervishes—a thorny matter. Seven excellent maps are added. These are among the most beautiful, full, and accurate that we have ever seen. The last, of political boundaries and data, gives the absolutely latest agreements and delimitations for the valley of the Nile. It will stand most careful study. The fourfold shading in red, from the British Protectorate in British East Africa, through a British Sphere of Influence in the Bahr el-Ghazal and the Condominium of England and Egypt between Fashoda and Wadi Halfa, to Egypt proper with its British Occupation, and the red-bordered white of the desert with its awkward Senussi question, are a triumph of cartography and put the situation in vivid brevity. Whoever wishes to understand that situation and Egypt generally, should turn to this book. Its timely importance cannot be exaggerated.

A History of Wireless Telegraphy, 1838-1899. By J. J. Fahie. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 325.

Everybody who seeks general information about Marconi's method of telegraphing and its relation to those of Preece, by ordinary dynamic induction, and of Lindsay and others by conduction through water in two paths, will be able to gather a somewhat better idea of these matters from this book than from the little volume of a quarter of the size by Richard Kerr. He will also learn here of some thirty earlier attempts. Steinheil the elder, in 1839, first proposed to telegraph by means of radiation otherwise than by vision. Morse, in 1842, first had the idea of erecting ordinary telegraphs along the two banks of an estuary or strait in order to make two conducting paths through the water. O'Shaughnessy in 1849 tried naked wires under water. Mahlon Loomis in 1872 proposed to telegraph through the upper air. Henry early telegraphed by means of the induction of coils, a method which Stevenson in 1892 practically developed.

The book has two faults that are common to almost all writings of practical men. The first is that it is needlessly technical. A good many people would like to read it who would have been thankful for a glossary explaining what an Obach cell, a D'Arsonville galvanometer, a Theiler sounder, a Cardew vibrator, a Righi exciter, and the like, are; for they will probably search for such expressions in vain in their encyclopædic dictionaries. The other fault is a want of logical distinctness in the thought. The very title of the book illustrates this. Contrivances that depend upon the vision of distant signals are, we believe, the only strictly wireless telegraphs that have ever been proposed. These, too, are the types to which the word "telegraph" was first appropriated. Yet this subject, which has been much studied by soldiers and sailors since 1838, is omitted by Mr. Fahie. On the other hand, Edison's contrivance (really due in its essence to Willoughby Smith) for communicating with a moving train cannot properly be called telegraphy, since it is only designed to close a gap of a few feet, while a telegraph is an apparatus for transmitting all sorts of messages faster than sound to distances beyond the reach of a man's voice. Nor do experiments with bare wires laid across the bed of a river come under the head of wireless telegraphy. The same defect is shown when Mr. Fahie professes not to understand what physicists mean by calling electricity a kind of matter, saying that engineers understand it to be a form of energy. If there were any real dispute upon such a point, we may be sure, from the nature of their studies, that it would be the students of theory who were right. But, in fact, it is a mere verbal discrepancy, best mended by confining the word "electricity" to vaguely denoting all phenomena depending on the luminiferous ether. Of course, optics is now universally acknowledged to be a branch of the science of electricity.

Notwithstanding these two faults, the work may be profitably read by anybody having a good elementary acquaintance with electricity.

Laxdæla Saga. Translated from the Icelandic by Muriel A. C. Press. London: J. M. Dent & Co. 1899. Pp. viii+272.

The Laxdæla Saga is, next to the Njals Saga, the longest of the sagas specifically Icelandic that have come down to us. In literary style it ranks among the very best of its kind, and far beyond many that have long been accessible in an English translation. It is, furthermore, one of the most romantic of all the sagas in its action, and one of the least removed by the strangeness of environment and the unfamiliarity of motive from the comprehension and sympathy of present-day readers. These are all good reasons for

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the present translation, which, aside from an episode from the saga in Thorkelin's 'Fragments of English and Irish History' (1788), has never before been put into English.

The book, which, as a volume of the "Temple Classics," is daintily printed and bound, is intended for the general reader, and is wholly without critical apparatus. The English flows along smoothly over all difficulties of the original text—first and last not a few—although this by no means implies that, from a critical point of view, they are always satisfactorily overcome. That is here, however, perhaps, of secondary importance, and we have really in the little book an extremely good literary version of a saga that cannot fail to charm the reader, even when he is not especially interested in this particular kind of literature. The Laxdæla Saga possesses an added attraction in that it has been the source of the material for what is in many ways the strongest and best sustained of the poems in William Morris's cycle, 'The Earthly Paradise,' viz., "The Lovers of Gudrun," whose heroine is also the central figure in the saga.

The editor of the series, Mr. Gollancz, in a note at the end, expresses the hope of the popular success of this translation, so that others of the sagas may follow. The increasing number of such translations, since publishers in the great majority of cases do not proceed on a principle of pure altruism, seems already to indicate a growing curiosity regarding this astonishingly fertile field where we should least have thought to look for it:

"Betwixt the ice-hills and the cold gray sea."

Aside from the subject-matter of this old narrative prose, there is in it a strength of simplicity and directness that might well point a moral in literary manner to many a writer of the present day.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barbe, W. Going to College. West Virginia University: The Author.
Chambers, G. F. The Story of Eclipses. Appletons.
Dutt, R. Ramayana: The Epic of Rama, Prince of India, Condensed into English Verse. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Fitch, C. Nathan Hale: A Play in Four Acts. R. H. Russell.
Gay, A., and Yeaman, C. H. An Introduction to the Study of Central Station Electricity Supply. Whittaker & Co. $3.
Harrison, F. Annals of an Old Manor-House, Sutton Place, Guilford. Macmillan.
Irving, W. The Alhambra. Macmillan. 25c.
Iverach, Rev. J. Theism in the Light of Present Science and Philosophy. Macmillan. $1.50.
Kemble, E. W. Coontown's 400. Life Pub. Co. $2.
Lamartine, A de. Scènes de la Révolution Française. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Marryat, Florence. A Rational Marriage. F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Nelson, O. N. History of the Scandinavians and Successful Scandinavians in the United States. Vols. 1 and 2. Minneapolis: O. N. Nelson & Co.
Oeuvres Complètes de Molière. 1 vol., 12 mo. Also 4 vols. 32mo. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 5s. and 14s.
Peet, Rev. S. D. The Cliff Dwellers and Pueblos. Chicago: American Antiquarian.
Richardson, C. F. The Choice of Books. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Savage, R. H. Captain Landon. Rand, McNally & Co.
Scott, Sir W. Marmion. Macmillan. 25c.
Smith, W. A. Temperate Chile: A Progressive Spain. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Spielmann, M. H. The Hitherto Unidentified Contributions of W. M. Thackeray to "Punch." Harpers. $1.75.
Strachey, H. Raphael. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Thompson, V. French Portraits. Boston: Richard G. Badger & Co. $2.50.
Thorp, F. L. Outlines of Industrial Chemistry. Macmillan. $3.50.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Vols. LIX. and LX.
Turgenev, I. The Jew, and Other Stories. Macmillan. $1.25.
Turgenev, I. A Desperate Character. Translated by Constance Garnett. Macmillan. $1.25.
Walford, L. B. Sir Patrick; The Puddock. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Walker, Prof. J. Introduction to Physical Chemistry. Macmillan. $2.50.
Ward, G. E. The Bride's Mirror. Henry Frowde.
Watson, W. A Text-Book of Physics. Longmans, Green & Co.
Welles, Dr. C. S. The Lute and Lays. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Welsh, Charles. Publishing a Book. Boston: D. C. Heath. 50c.
Weltgeschichte. Vol. I. Leipzig and Vienna: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
West, Sir A. Recollections, 1832-1886. Harpers. $3.
White, G. The Natural History of Selborne. Edited by Grant Allen. John Lane. $7.50.
Whitehouse, H. R. The Collapse of the Kingdom of Naples. Bonnell, Silver & Co. $1.50.
Who's Who, 1900. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Woodward, W. H. A Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire. 1500-1870. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Worsfold, W. B. The Redemption of Egypt. Longmans, Green & Co.

"I do not know where else, within the limits, to find so delightful a selection of noble poems."—*Prof. Thomas R. Price of Columbia.*

Pancoast's Standard English Poems.

749 pp. 16mo. $1.50 *net.*
Some 250 complete poems, *besides* selections from longer poems.

Henry Holt & Co., New York

THE FUTURE OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO.

By BOOKER T. WASHINGTON.

Price, $1.50.

"In respect of distinction alike of style, insight, outlook, spirit, and manner, this discussion of 'The Future of the American Negro,' by Booker T. Washington, is as noteworthy as any book which has appeared during the year."—*Chicago Evening Post.*

SMALL, MAYNARD & COMPANY, Boston.

The Divina Commedia and Canzoniere of Dante Alighieri.

Translated, with Notes and Studies, by the late E. H. Plumptre, D.D., Dean of Wells.

Five volumes, each with Frontispiece and Index of Subject and Names.

LIBRARY EDITION.—Limp cloth, uncut edges. Five volumes in a box, per set, $4 00.
STUDENT'S EDITION.—Cloth, 16mo. Price, per volume, 50 cents. Any volume in the Student's Edition sold separately.

D. C. HEATH & CO., Publishers,
Boston. New York. Chicago. London.

The First Edition of the Talmud in English.

Eight volumes of "Festivals" and one "Ethics of *Judaism*" on sale. "Jurisprudence" in press. $3.00 per vol. Particulars from

New Talmud Publishing Co., 1332 5th Ave., N. Y.

"Old Father Gander."

Every child should have it.
L. C. PAGE & CO., Boston, Mass.

A History of the English Poor Law.

Vol. III. From 1834 to the Present Time. Being a supplementary volume to "A History of the English Poor Law," by Sir George Nicholls. By Thomas Mackay. Royal 8vo.

Mr. Mackay has brought up to the present time the History of the Poor Law left unfinished by the author of the two earlier volumes. His success with this difficult task is thus attested by the London *Speaker*: "Every reader who has tramped with Nicholls along the highways and byways of Poor Law history, . . . will be grateful for the easier and more attractive route provided in the philosophic treatise of Mr. Mackay."

Vols. I. and II. cover 954 to 1853. Each $10.00.

G. P. Putnam's Sons,
New York. London.

TWO STANDARD WORKS OF REFERENCE.
Lippincott's Pronouncing Dictionary of Biography and Mythology.
Lippincott's Gazetteer of the World.
New Revised Edition.
Write for circulars. For sale by all booksellers.
J. B. LIPPINCOTT COMPANY, Publishers, Phila.

BOOKS AT LIBERAL DISCOUNTS. | **When calling please ask for MR. GRANT. Whenever you need a Book, address MR. GRANT.**

Before buying books write for quotations. An assortment of catalogues and special slips of books at reduced prices sent for 10-cent stamp.
F. E. GRANT, Books,
23 W. 42d St., NEW YORK.
(*Mention this advertisement and receive a discount.*)

ELLIS & ELVEY,
Dealers in Old and Rare Books.
CATALOGUES of CHOICE BOOKS and ILLUMINATED MANUSCRIPTS published periodically.
Rare Early English Literature, Early Printed Books in Black Letter, Ancient Artistic Bookbindings, rare Prints and Autographs, etc. Only fine specimens are dealt with.
29 NEW BOND STREET, LONDON, ENG.

KINDERGARTEN SUPPLIES at SCHERMERHORN'S, 3 East 14th St., N. Y
Send for New Catalogue.

HATCHARDS.

This is the favorite BOOKSTORE, and for 100 years the resort of the smartest people in London. It is visited and patronized by all who love books. London is the great market for books, and all the best as well as the cheapest editions can be had by writing here. Special collections formed, and fuller information supplied than from any other house. Books, both old and new, and relating to any subject, can readily be supplied, at very moderate prices.

Agents for Clubs, Libraries, and all private collectors.

187 Piccadilly, London, W.

NEW PUBLICATIONS IN SPANISH.

DOCE CUENTOS ESCOGIDOS.

Edited for class use with notes and vocabulary by C. Fontaine, B.L., L.D., Director of French and Spanish Instruction in the High Schools of Washington, D. C. The editor's aim has been to give the student an easy text composed of selections from standard writers.

Price 75 cents, postpaid.

Complete catalogue on application. For sale by all booksellers, or postpaid on receipt of price by the publisher,

WILLIAM R. JENKINS
851 and 853 6th Ave. (cor. 48th St.), New York.

F. W. CHRISTERN
(DYRSEN & PFEIFFER, Successors),
429 5th Ave., bet. 38th and 39th Sts., New York.
Importers of Foreign Books; Agents for the leading Paris Publishers; Tauchnitz's British Authors, Teubner's Greek and Latin Classics. Catalogues of stock mailed on demand. New books received from Paris and Leipzig as soon as issued.

CATALOGUE, No. 49 (of second-hand books and pamphlets), as to contents, is the best I have published. A. S. Clark, 174 Fulton St., New York.

BOOKS, SECOND HAND AND NEW, Standard and Rare. Books bought. Catalogue Issued. E. W. Johnson, 2 E. 42d St., N. Y.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

REMINISCENCES
OF
Julia Ward Howe.

With 24 Illustrations.

Large Crown 8vo, $2.50.

Covering so long a period,—nearly eighty years,—and touching so wide a circle,—the fashionable life of New York in its best set in her early days and, later, meeting intimately the literary, philanthropic, artistic, and musical people, not only of Boston, but of all parts of the world,—the record of a life filled to the brim with so many and such absorbing interests could hardly fail to attract and hold the attention of most of us.—*New York Times.*

The eagerly awaited "Reminiscences" of Mrs. Julia Ward Howe will not disappoint any of the expectations which the announcement of the volume aroused. It abounds in recollections of genuine value, it deals with stirring times and rare personalities, its comments are often deliciously shrewd and quaint, its dignity is marked, and it has, on the whole, an irresistible quality that tempts one to dip into it here and there before beginning at the first and attractive chapter that treats of childhood days. Much of the material that concerns Dr. Howe himself is of especial interest.—*The Living Age*, Boston.

A valuable contribution to the social and literary history of the century by one who has had exceptional opportunities, at home and abroad, of meeting the most distinguished people. The graciousness of the writer adds a charm to this record of social life in America, begun at a time when simplicity was its distinguishing feature. The evolution to the present complexity is marked, but without conscious effort, by the author.—*The Outlook.*

To a woman with the traditions of New York society, fresh from Old World experiences, and with a temperament sensitive to mental impressions, although of distinct individuality, the opportunity was exceptionally fruitful. Emerson, Holmes, Parker, Clarke, Margaret Fuller, Dr. Hedge, Channing, Sumner, Longfellow, Horace Mann, Garrison, Wendell Phillips, what a group of intellectual giants it was, and as Mrs. Howe recalls now traits or characteristics, speeches or witticisms, of the distinguished members of the group, the reader is charmed.—*Brooklyn Times.*

Sold by all booksellers. Sent, postpaid, by

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., Boston,
11 East 17th Street, New York.

Arnold Constable & Co.

Carpets.

Wilton, Axminster, and Brussels Carpets
Oil Cloths and Linoleums.

Oriental Rugs.

Upholstery.

Tapestry, Damask, and Armure Wall Coverings.

Lace Curtains.

Broadway & 19th st.
NEW YORK

Extraordinary Reduction!

In order to send out balance of

Augusta-Victoria Empress Shoulder-Shawls

HAND WOVEN in DECEMBER,

the price for a limited time is **$5.50** instead of $7.50. Colors remaining: Light green, white, and cherry red.

Sent on approval.

The Susacuac Weaving Co.
BETHLEHEM, PA.

Registered Trade Mark.

1900 Washable Dress Goods

At "The Linen Store."

We now offer for inspection and sale an extensive assortment of the choicer grades of imported washable fabrics for the coming spring and summer.

MATERIALS FOR

Waists and Gowns
Bicycle and Golf Suits
Graduation Dresses
Church and Calling Gowns
Outing Costumes
for Mountains and Seaside

Examination and comparison are cordially invited.

James McCutcheon & Co.,
14 West 23d St., New York.

The Spectator.

The Proprietors who in 1861 purchased the *Spectator* have since that date conducted it themselves. They are therefore exempted from many influences which press severely on the independence of journalism, and have from the first made it their chief object to say out what they believe to be truth in theology, politics, and social questions, irrespective, not only of opposition from without, but of the opinion of their own supporters. Their object is to reflect the opinion of cultivated Liberals; but in the matter of the American War they fought against the mass of the very class they are trying to represent, and were finally acknowledged by them to have been in the right.

The news of the current week is compressed into an animated narrative, which the laziest or busiest may read, without missing the life or import of the events.

The *Spectator* contains a list of all Books published during the week (not under one shilling in price), with the names of the publishers and the prices attached, a feature which will greatly increase its value to booksellers, librarians, literary institutions, and private gentlemen.

The *SPECTATOR* is on sale regularly at **Messrs. Damrell & Upham's**, 283 Washington St., Boston, Mass.; **The International News Co.**, 83 and 85 Duane St., New York; **Messrs. Brentano's**, Union Square, New York; **The Subscription News Co.**, 47 Dey St., New York, and 77 Clark St., Chicago, and **The Harold A. Wilson Co., Ltd.**, 35 King St., West Toronto, Canada, where single copies can be obtained and subscriptions are received.

SUBSCRIPTION*, PAYABLE IN ADVANCE, *$7.50 A YEAR.

SPECTATOR, LTD., 1 Wellington Street, Strand, London, England.

Brentano's Edition
THE STANDARD OPERAGLASS
An Invaluable Hand-book for Music Lovers

TIFFANY STUDIOS

Illustrated Historical Booklets sent upon request—(1) *Favrile Glass*, (2) *Lamps and Fixtures*, (3) *Glass Mosaic*, (4) *Memorial Windows*, (5) *Memorial Tablets*, (6) *Monuments.*

333-341 FOURTH AVENUE, NEW YORK.

ABSOLUTELY RELIABLE, ALWAYS.
Remington Standard Typewriter.
WYCKOFF, SEAMANS & BENEDICT,
327 Broadway, New York.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED